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ABSTRACT

This collection of 11 papers contains three types of papers: (1) 1991 Speech Communication Association Basic Course Committee award winning papers; (2) articles on the basic communication course; and (3) the public speaking basic course. The papers are: "Academic Success in the Basic Course: The Influence of Apprehension and Demographics" (Charles A. Lubbers and Diane Atkinson Gorcyca); "Basic Public Speaking Principles: An Examination of Twelve Popular Texts" (Jon A. Hess and Judy C. Pearson); "Evaluation of a Basic Communication Course" (Wendy S. Zabava Ford and Andrew D. Wolvin); "Critical Thinking Is/As Communication" (Warren Sandmann); "Video-Modeling and Pre-Performance Apprehension: Is Ignorance Bliss?" (Craig Newburger and Michael Hemphill); "Directing the Basic Communication Course: Eighteen Years Later" (Richard L. Weaver II and Howard W. Cotrell); "To Say or Not; To Do or Not--Those Are the Questions: Sexual Harassment and the Basic Course Instructor" (Mary M. Gill and William J. Wardrope); "Teaching Public Speaking as Composition" (Michael Leff); "Be Relevant, Careful, and Appropriate: Scary Advice on the Use of Humor to the Novice Public Speaker" (Judythe A. Isserlis); "The Introduction of a Speech: Do Good Introductions Predict a Good Speech?" (Valerie A. Whitecap); and "The Use of Role Models in Teaching Public Speaking" (Lauren A. Vicker). (RS)

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Basic Communication Course Annual

Lawrence W. Hugenberg
Editor

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BASIC COMMUNICATION COURSE ANNUAL

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Lawrence W. Hugenberg

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Editor's Page

Volume IV of the Basic Communication Course Annual reflects the diligent efforts of the authors and the manuscript reviewers. There are always times in the process of seeking manuscripts and reviews that time pressures take their toll on everyone in the process. I always ask for a quick turn around of reviews from the reviewers. Based on their comments, authors have opportunity to revise manuscripts in a short period of time in order to have them included in The Annual. Everyone has always been cooperative in meeting deadlines imposed on the process by the editor.

The authors appreciate the comments of the reviewers in putting their ideas into publishable form. In fact one author wrote, "The three reviewers have provided me with valuable food for thought. As I am sure you are well aware, this aspect of the submission process is the one most useful to me as a writer. . . . There is no substitute for the honest perspective of a 'blind' review. I am more than satisfied that the manuscript was given careful consideration." I feel honored to work with each of the manuscript reviewers. They make the task of being the editor of The Annual pleasant; they are the ones who need to be congratulated for making the Basic Communication Course Annual a success.

The people at American Press who put The Annual together work under the added time pressures of typesetting all of the manuscripts and, after returning proof pages to the editor, to make any necessary corrections before entering the book into production.

This will be my second-to-last Basic Communication Course Annual. I will be involved as editor in putting together Volume V next year. The Basic Course Committee of the Speech Communication Committee will be deciding on a new editor who will take over The Annual for Volume VI in 1994.

Larry Hugenberg, *Editor*
Youngstown, Ohio
June, 1992

Contents

1991 Speech Communication Association Basic Course Committee Award Winning Papers

"Academic Success in the Basic Course:
The Influence of Apprehension and Demographics" 1
Charles A. Lubbers
Diane Atkinson Gorcyca

Past research has identified communication apprehension as a causal agent for academic success. This investigation focused on the relationship of apprehension to success in a basic communication course. Additional demographic variables, including age, sex, grade in school, previous communication courses taken, and accumulated grade point average were included in a stepwise regression analysis. Self-reported grade point average and classification in school were found to be positively related to the final grade. Experience with previous communication courses and with extracurricular communication activities were negatively related to apprehension levels. Results confirm basic beliefs regarding public speaking experience and also support the "earlier the better" notion regarding public presentations.

"Basic Public Speaking Principles: An Examination
of Twelve Popular Texts" 16
Jon A. Hess
Judy C. Pearson

Although the basic communication course has become more widely investigated in recent years, the basic course *textbooks have not enjoyed the same attention. The purpose of this study was to examine the twelve most popular basic public speaking texts. The primary principles included in these books were determined as was the relative importance given to each principle. This information should be useful for instructors and administrators of basic public speaking courses as well as for authors of similar textbooks.*

Articles on the Basic Communication Course

"Evaluation of a Basic Communication Course" 35
Wendy S. Zabava Ford
Andrew D. Wolvin

This study addressed the effects of a basic communication course on students' perceptions of their communication skills. Students enrolled in a basic course were asked via a pre- and post- course questionnaire to assess changes in their perceptions of their communication skills. An analysis of the questionnaire results revealed that the basic course did have a positive effect on students' perceptions of their communication skills, particularly in presentation and interviewing skills, and on their comfort in communicating. The results also illustrate that the effects on communication skills were stronger in those areas (especially public speaking) where students perceived the greatest need to improve. While there are limitations to this self-report data analysis, the study does provide some evidence that a basic communication course can have a positive effect on students' communication skills.

"Critical Thinking Is/As Communication" 48
Warren Sandmann

This essay argues for the place of critical thinking in the basic communication course. Included in the argument is a discussion and critique of traditional modes of critical thinking, an analysis of an alternative approach to critical thinking, the grounding of this alternative approach in a classical *communication model, a discussion of why the basic course in communication is the most appropriate home for the teaching of critical thinking, and a sample approach to teaching critical thinking in the basic course.*

"Video-Modeling and Pre-Performance Apprehension:
Is Ignorance Bliss?" 72
Craig Newburger
Michael Hemphill

This research examined the impact of video-modeling on basic communication course students' public speaking apprehension. Students were confronted with successful and unsuccessful video model presentations of their first public speaking assignment. The viewing of the video models preceded in-class live performances. Results indicate that students who were confronted with both of the video models experienced increased public speaking apprehension, while students who viewed neither video model did not.

"Directing the Basic Communication Course:
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Richard L. Weaver II
Howard W. Cotrell

We focused on three problems that evolve over time for veteran basic course directors. After briefly commenting on the state of basic course literature, we discuss dealing with tradition, motivating students for the long term, and maintaining our own motivation for the course — three areas quite distinct from those addressed in an earlier article. The ideas and issues discussed here have arisen as a result of eighteen years of directing a basic communication course.

"To Say or Not; To Do or Not — Those are the Questions:
Sexual Harassment and the Basic Course Instructor"......... 94
Mary M. Gill
William J. Wardrope

Although men and women may be the victims of sexual harassment, the majority of women will experience harassment in the classroom and/or on the job. Harassment in the classroom occurs often out of ignorance of knowing what constitutes harassing behaviors. Those feeling harassed often are not the only victims in these situations. Many "victims" of harassment are the inexperienced instructor or graduate assistant who realize too late that their well intended actions have been received differently. The specific parameters of what constitutes harassing behaviors and its prevalence are examined. A training module is offered which presents guidelines for the basic course director to use in acquainting his or her staff with appropriate actions to guard against sexual harassment complaints.

The Public Speaking Basic Course

"Teaching Public Speaking as Composition: 115
Michael Leff

The public speaking course has changed little during the past two decades, despite the rapid and profound changes that have occurred in rhetorical scholarship. By contrast, the basic composition course in English Departments has undergone transformations that more closely reflect the development of the scholarship. One reason for this difference may rest in our failure to regard the public speaking course as a serious part of our mission as teachers and scholars. By concentrating on the rhetoric of composition, we might not only generate innovative and theoretically interesting approaches to pedagogy, but we might improve our rhetorical scholarship by connecting it more directly with our common experience as teachers of public speaking.

"Be Relevant, Careful, and Appropriate: Scary Advice on the Use of Humor to the Novice Public Speaker" 123
Judythe A. Isserlis

Most contemporary public speaking texts contain some reference to the effective use of humor by public speakers.

This advice tends to reflect common assumptions on the role of humor in public speaking and the ability of the novice speaker to incorporate humor in a speech. A review of 27 contemporary texts explores the trend in humor instruction and offers 11 categories which summarize the treatment of humor: (1) theories of humor, (2) rationale for the use of humor, (3) guidelines for the use of humor, (4) sources of humor, (5) humor as a factor of attention, (6) specific humorous techniques to employ in a speech, (7) injunctions on the use of humor, (8) who should use humor, (9) the use of self-deprecating humor, (10) how to deliver the humor, (11) humorous speaking.

"The Introduction of a Speech: Do Good Introductions Predict a Good Speech?" 141
Valerie A. Whitecap

Can the introduction predict the success or failure of the speech? Does anything predict a successful speech?

First, textbooks were examined to see what is being taught about introductions. Then the results of the first speeches given by freshman and sophomores in a hybrid communication were studied to see if successful introductions predicted successful speeches. Finally, some other predictors to speech success are discussed, including public speaking experience and the verbality of the student's chosen major.

This comparison of the introduction of the speech and the subsequent grade on the speech was done as a preliminary "think piece," so no attempt was made to determine statistical significance. The study asked, "What's out there?", and will hopefully lead to more controlled statistical analyses.

"The Use of Role Models
in Teaching Public Speaking" 154
Lauren A. Vicker

This study investigated the use of role models as an instructional strategy in public speaking classes. The subjects in this study were 24 college students in two communication classes. One group viewed a videotape of seven informative speeches given by upper-division speech students and representing a range of ability. The other group did not view the video. Both groups were videotaped presenting their own speeches and these speeches were rated by a group of senior speech majors at another college. Means of the ratings for each speaker were analyzed using a two-sample t-test. Results did not support the hypothesis that watching the role models would help the students prepare and present better speeches. Findings are explained in terms of the critical role of the instructor, the possible bias of the raters, and the difficulty in controlling classroom content.

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Call for Papers 166

Academic Success in the Basic Course: The Influence of Apprehension and Demographics

Charles A. Lubbers
Diane Atkinson Gorcyca

As instructors in basic communication courses, we are constantly telling our students that one of the best methods of dealing with communication apprehension, especially in the public speaking context, is repeated experience. A cursory examination of various texts for basic communication courses rendered the following examples of this counsel:

> Repeated experiences in front of an audience tend to reduce fear and permit the learning of communication skills that have application both inside and outside the classroom (Pearson & Nelson, 1991, p. 326).
>
> Experience will help speakers who feel moderate degrees of apprehension. Experience will show you that a public speech can be effective despite your fears and anxieties (DeVito, 1991, p. 336).
>
> The more experience you get in speaking, the more able you are to cope with nervousness (Verderber, 1984, p. 280).
>
> Another aid in controlling apprehension is to do what you are doing now: learn about giving speeches. When you understand the process and devices needed to give a speech you will feel more comfortable in the public communication context. Like any other skill, public speaking can be practiced and improved (Buerkel-Rothfuss, 1985, p. 296).
>
> If you are an inexperienced speaker, please know that you will learn to control your nervousness as you get more and more practice in public speaking, both in your speech class and in your career. You should welcome this expe-

> rience as a way to further your personal and professional growth (Gregory, H., 1990, p. 54) .
>
> To cope with speech anxiety we must realize that the potential for failure always exists, but that we can't let it stop us from trying (Seiler, 1988, p. 217).

This investigation sought to empirically test the existence of a causal relationship between communication apprehension and academic success in the basic communication course. Will prior experience in communication courses and prior experience in extracurricular communication activities such as debate, forensics and theater, affect the level of communication apprehension as reported by students enrolled in a basic communication course? Additionally, this research sought to determine the impact of several demographic variables on both communication apprehension and final grade in the basic communication course.

Communication apprehension, operationalized in terms of an individual's score on the PRCA and defined as "...an individual's level of fear or anxiety about real or anticipated communication with another person or persons" (McCroskey, 1977, p. 78), is one of the dominant issues in communication research. The existence of high apprehension levels in college students has been widely documented (see McCroskey, 1970; Bowers, 1986). The quotes from basic course texts mentioned above illustrate the relevance that authors have attached to the concept. While few colleges and universities may operate some form of treatment program for apprehension (Hoffman & Sprague, 1982), most instructors of basic communication courses would acknowledge the impact of apprehensive students on their development of teaching strategies.

A number of studies have examined the relationship between communication apprehension and the basic course in terms of interaction, performance and final grade. Butterfield (1988) found high communication apprehensives attend to, comprehend and remember class content less effectively.

Freimuth (1976) determined that high apprehensives perform oral communication tasks less effectively.

A more extensive body of research has explored the relationship of communication apprehension and achievement. Communication apprehension significantly effects the academic achievement of elementary and secondary students (Comadena & Prusank, 1988; Davis & Scott, 1978; McCroskey, Andersen, Richmond & Wheeless, 1981). Additionally, high communication apprehension has deleterious effects on a student's overall academic achievement (Scott & Wheeless, 1977b). Some examples of these effects include lower scores on standardized tests as well as lower grade point averages (McCroskey & Andersen, 1976). McCroskey (1975) found lower grade point averages for high apprehensives than for moderate apprehensives. Using a personal survey approach, not the PRCA, Bowers (1986) found no correlation between classroom communication apprehension and grade point average.

McCroskey and Sheahan (1976) and Hurt, Preiss and Davis (1976) report that high degrees of apprehension and negative attitudes toward school are related. High apprehensive college students dropped out of school at a significantly higher rate than low apprehensives (McCroskey, Booth-Butterfield & Payne, 1989). The same investigation found high CA's had a significantly lower grade point average during the first two years of college, but not in the third and fourth years. While there may be an indication of a negative performance relationship with apprehension, McCroskey, Daly and Sorensen (1976) found no significant relationship between apprehension and intelligence in college students.

Upon reviewing the literature related to communication apprehension and academic achievement, Powers and Smythe (1980, p. 146) argue that "...high levels of communication apprehension yield negative academic outcomes." These negative outcomes undoubtedly result from "...a high degree of communication apprehension [that] can be a serious learning disability" (Scott, Wheeless, Yates & Randolph, 1977, p. 543).

Because of the negative effects on academic achievement, researchers have attempted to determine how communication effects an individual's performance in an academic setting. Page (1980) noted that research generally agrees that those who appear anxious tend to be judged as less effective communicators than those who appear more calm. Rubin and Graham (1988) noted that perceptions of communication competence were tied to communication apprehension. They argued that those exhibiting high communication apprehension were judged to be less competent communicators. Powers and Smythe (1980) found "...that low CA students are evaluated significantly higher than their high CA counterparts" (p. 150).

To further determine the relationship of communication apprehension to academic success in a college basic communication course, this investigation assessed the impact of various demographic variables and apprehension level on final grades. The demographic variables of age, sex, year in school, year since last attended school, previous communication courses taken and extracurricular involvement in communication activities were reported by the subjects. Bowers (1986) found no relationship between class level and classroom communication apprehension, and a slight ($p < .06$) relationship between age and apprehension, with students 25 and older experiencing less apprehension.*

Based on the previous review of literature, the following research questions were developed for investigation:

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* The reader will note that the mean subject age for this investigation was 22.5. Subjects attend a small midwestern college where over 30% of the students are "non-traditional" with the large majority of these females. The investigators noted a determination on their part to over-achieve, while simultaneously exhibiting high apprehensive behaviors.

Ql: What is the impact of a variety of demographic variables and communication apprehension on final grade achieved?

Q2: What is the impact of demographic variables on self reported communication apprehension?

METHODS

Subjects

The subjects in this investigation consisted of 401 undergraduate students (165 men and 236 women) enrolled in sixteen sections of a basic speech communication course. The course was offered at a small state-supported college in the midwest with an enrollment of approximately 4,500 students. The 401 students were included in the analysis because they completed the PRCA-24 and completed most of the demographic questionnaire.

The ages ranged from 17 to 55 with a mean of 22.5. 378 subjects indicated their current grade in college: 211 freshman (55.8%), 100 sophomores (26.5%), 39 juniors (10.3%), and 28 seniors (7.4%). The 350 subjects providing a self-reported GPA had a mean of 2.87 and a median of 3.0 on the 4.0 scale.

Data Collection

During the first or second class period of the semester all students enrolled in the basic communication course completed the PRCA-24 and a questionnaire which collected all of the information described below. At the end of the semester, the final course grades were collected and matched to the earlier responses of the students.

Communication apprehension was measured by McCroskey's 24 item Personal Report of Communication

Apprehension (PRCA-24). In 1978, Daly reported that there were at least 25 self-report measures of communication anxiety. The PRCA-24 was chosen because of its applicability to the variables proposed for analysis, its excellent development over the last two decades; and its consistently strong reliability and validity.

McCroskey, Beatty, Kearney and Plax (1985) note that, "The Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA) has evolved as the dominant instrument employed by both researchers and practitioners for measuring trait-like communication apprehension" (p. 165). The dominant position of the PRCA as a diagnostic and research tool is due, in part, to its long tradition in development.

A variety of demographic and descriptive information was collected at the start of the semester. The subject's gender, age, grade level, and self-reported GPA were collected with the PRCA-24. Additionally, subjects were asked to identify the number of communication courses they had taken in the past, whether or not they had ever been involved in public speaking intensive extracurricular activities (debate, forensics, theater, etc.), and how many years it had been since they last attended school.

Analysis of Data

The research questions were analyzed using stepwise multiple regression. A standard confidence level of .05 was adopted for this research. All tests were conducted using the SPSSx statistical analysis package.

RESULTS

Research Question 1

What is the impact of a variety of demographic variables and communication apprehension on final grade achieved?

To test research question one a stepwise regression was conducted with the final course grade as the dependent variable and twelve independent variables. The independent variables included the other eight described in the methods section. Additionally, the scores for the four subscales of the PRCA-24 were included as independent variables.

Table 1
Stepwise Multiple Regression:
Dependent Variable – Final Grade

Step	Variable	Beta[a]	R^2	Stepwise F	Sig F
1	Reported GPA	–.2169	.0359	11.6424	.0007
2	Grade Level	–.2016	.0759	12.7834	.0000
3	Public Communication Apprehehnsion	–.1175	.0897	10.1864	.0000

[a] Beta (standardized regression coefficient) values were taken from the coefficient table produced in the final step, rather than coefficients reported at each step.

Table 1 presents the description of those variables which were included in the regression equation developed for the independent variable of final grade. The negative values for each of the three variables produces the following conclusions. First, the higher the student's self-reported GPA the higher the final grade in the course. Second, students in higher grade levels were more likely to receive higher final grades. Finally, the higher the score on the Public Communication Apprehension subscale of the *PRCA-24*, the higher the final course grade.

Research Question 2

What is the impact of demographic variables on self-reported communication apprehension?

Two stepwise regressions were conducted to answer research question number two. One used the PRCA-24 score as the dependent measure and the second used the score on the Public Speaking subscale of the PRCA-24 as the dependent variable. Both regressions used the seven demographic and descriptive variables (sex, age, GPA, grade level, extracurricular participation, communication courses taken, and years since attending school) as independent measures.

Table 2 presents the results for the stepwise regression with the overall PRCA-24 score as the dependent variable. The results indicate that the two variables related to prior communication experience were in the equation. Essentially, the more communication courses a subject had taken previously, the or lower higher reported CA level. Additionally, those students who were involved in communication-intensive extracurricular activities reported lower CA levels.

Table 3 presents the three variables which loaded into the regression equation developed for the dependent variable of the public speaking subscale. The two variables related to communication experience again appeared in the equation. However, the variable of subject sex was added to the equation. The results indicate that the females in the subject sample reported higher levels of public speaking apprehension than did the males.

Table 2
Stepwise Multiple Regression:
Dependent Variable – Communication Apprehension

Step	Variable	Beta*	R^2	Stepwise F	Sig F
1	Communication Courses	–.2065	.0784	26.5476	.0000
2	Extracurricular	–.1898	.1090	19.0279	.0000

*Beta (standardized regression coefficient) values were taken from the coefficient table produced in the final step, rather than coefficients reported at each step.

Table 3
Stepwise Multiple Regression:
Dependent Variable – Public Speaking Apprehension

Step	Variable	Beta*	R^2	Stepwise F	Sig F
1	Communication Courses	–.2205	.0827	28.1434	.0000
2	Subject Sex	.2203	.1282	22.8577	.0000
3	Extracurricular	–.1334	.1432	17.2766	.0000

*Beta (standardized regression coefficient) values were taken from the coefficient table produced in the final step, rather than coefficients reported at each step.

DISCUSSION

The first research question asked which demographic variables would impact on final grade achieved. Self-reported GPA, grade level in college and public CA were significant on the stepwise regression analysis. On an intuitive level, it was of no surprise that there was a positive relationship between self reported GPA and final grade achieved in the basic communication source. Success in other courses, at either the high school or college level, is a good predictor of success in the basic course.

The second variable which entered the regression equation, grade level, suggests that the common belief that upper-division students exhibit superior performance in the basic communication course has a realistic foundation.* The first two variables which entered into the stepwise equation, GPA and grade level, are empirical confirmations of instinctive beliefs held by basic course instructors.

The variable entered in the third step of the equation, the public speaking subscore, indicated that higher grades were achieved by students with higher scores on the public communication subscale, in contrast with previous research (Butterfield, 1988; Freimuth, 1976). This may lend support to the notion that apprehension can serve a functional role in academic success. The students may demonstrate extra motivation compared to those with lower apprehension, and this results in superior academic achievement. In the basic communication course used in this present investigation, assignments ranged from oral presentations, written essays and objective tests. The oral presentations composed roughly 30-35% of the total grade and may have served to motivate the student on all assignments in order to compensate for their perceived inabilities in public communication. Future research should address the question of grade differences based on oral and written assignments. With the variation between seven instructors as far as teaching techniques, this issue was not addressed by the present research.

Research question two addressed the relationship between the demographic variables and self-reports of communication apprehension. Two stepwise regressions were conducted: the first to determine the impact on the PRCA-24 score, and the second the determine the relationship to the public speaking subscore. The first regression confirmed the sage advice of communication texts and instructors that "experience helps." Both previous communication courses and extracurricular communication activity serve to reduce the level of overall communication apprehension. The fact that the public communication subscore was significantly related to academic success in the basic course, encouraged a post hoc third regression to determine the relationship of demographics to public speaking apprehension. Again, the experience factor (courses and extracurricular activities) had a positive influence of lower apprehension.

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* Particularly since this is an open admissions policy college

A surprising factor, subject sex, appeared in the second step of the equation. Females were more likely to experience public speaking apprehension than males. It is significant to note that subject sex did not load in any other regression equation. Again, while we may intrinsically feel that females are more circumspect than males, combined with the large number of non-traditional females, especially in the public speaking context, the results of the third stepwise regression do not provide clear evidence of this explanation.

This research has abundant strengths and limitations. The subject size was large, over 400, which can allow for reasonable confidence in the results. However, there were seven different instructors involved in the sampling. Each of the seven approach apprehension in a diverse manner and no attempt was made to control for this variance. The instructors were handed the PRCA-24 scores for their students and were not admonished to refrain from analyzing the scores. Likely, some instructors did know the apprehension scores for certain students and this could have effected their instruction and grading. However, given the large sample size, the impact of this behavior should be relatively negligible.

In total, these results present numerous research possibilities. The significance of the public speaking subscore in the regression equation indicates the need to further analyze grading patterns in the basic communication course. Will there be a significant difference on the grades of high apprehensives on oral and written assignments, as compared to low and moderate apprehensives? How can we motivate the low apprehensive student in the basic course? When we cover the concept of apprehension in class are we reducing their level of motivation, since this is an unexperienced anxiety? Finally, it would be relevant to determine the relationship of academic success, apprehension and teaching styles? Is there a more significant relationship with some instructors than with others? What factors might explain this variability?

The concept of demographic characteristics impacting on communication apprehension may render support for "homespun" wisdom. These results may also indicate the essential accomplishment of communication experiences during early educational settings. At the present time, when we are faced with severe funding cutbacks in the area of education, many state, county and local education governing bodies may consider the elimination of speech and drama programs and extracurricular activities. If in fact communication apprehension has a detrimental impact on overall academic achievement, and previous experience significantly reduces the level of apprehension, then a compelling case could be constructed for preserving such programs.

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Basic Public Speaking Principles: Examination of Twelve Popular Texts

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The basic course is the mainstay of the discipline (Seiler & McGukin, 1989). For most students it is the first contact with the speech communication discipline. and for many, the only. Pearson and Nelson (1990) noted that "our [speech communication discipline's] identity... seems inextricably tied to it. Many people including colleagues from other disciplines think that the basic course *is* our field" (p. 4). Since its impact cannot be discounted. scholars must continue to assess both its content and form.

The importance of the basic course is reflected in the number of published articles focused on it. Aside from having an annually published journal *(The Basic Communication Course Annual)* devoted to it, articles concerning the basic course are sprinkled throughout many of the discipline's journals. However, Schneider (1991) pointed out that few studies have focused on the textbooks used. Since the textbook is generally the foundation upon which the course is built, it is an important object of study.

Although the term basic course may be used to identify a variety of courses (such as public speaking, interpersonal communication, hybrid blends of the public and interpersonal communication, or communication theory), public speaking is the most common approach (Gray, 1989; Trank & Lewis, 1991). Thus, this investigation focused on public speaking texts. The objective was to gain a clear understanding of what content is included in basic speech textbooks. This task involved examining principles in texts and finding how much book space was devoted to each principle.

This information should be valuable for instructors who teach public speaking, for administrators who supervise the course, and for writers of textbooks and accompanying materials. But most of all, this information should be of use to scholars and critics of the basic course. By examining exactly what we include in our texts, we can then evaluate the merit of each component. Through carefully examining our own practices, we can assess our basic public speaking course to improve the weaknesses and maintain the strengths.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Public Speaking Special Theory

Theories can be classified into at least two categories: general theories and special theories (Bormann, 1980). General theories are theories that describe the way something must happen. For example, the theory of gravity states that objects will fall toward the center of the Earth; the object has no choice. Special theories, however, describe an ideal way for something to happen. Robert's rules of order are a special theory for how to conduct a group meeting. While participants are able to violate the rules, Robert's rules propose an effective way to operate.

The basic public speaking course presents a special theory, one we can call public speaking theory. It describes a way for a speaker to communicate effectively with an audience. However, the speaker has a choice: she or he can choose to ignore virtually any aspect of the special theory. A speaker could present a speech without organizing it into an introduction, body, or conclusion, could opt to neither preview the main points nor speak loudly enough to be heard. However, if the special theory is accurate, these violations from the guidelines would detract from the effectiveness of the presentation.

Historical Background and Critique of Public Speaking Special Theory

While concern with public speaking can be traced at least as far back as 300 B.C. to Aristotle's *The Rhetoric*, the roots of the modern course begin in the mid-1800s (Macke, 1991). Throughout the 19th century, public speaking was taught only in the English department as a rhetoric class (Oliver, 1962). However, aided by the progressive movement and popularity of pragmatic philosophy (characterized by Dewey's work) in the early 1900s, communication studies grew in importance to scholars and practitioners (Bormann, 1990). The first modern speech textbook was published in 1905 (Frizzell, 1905), and when the National Association for the Academic Study of Public Speaking was formed in 1914, the modern basic course was born.

Since its beginnings in early 1900's, the modern public speaking course has changed very little. Early writings confirm that the special theory that educators teach today's students is strikingly similar to what it was 80 years ago. Prior to 1920, students gave seven or eight extemporaneous speeches during the course (Trueblood, 1915). They learned both theory and practice, with an emphasis on practice (Houghton. 1918). The focus included audience adaptation, speaking loudly enough, and several topics fitting into the rubric or speech organization (Kay, 1917). Students studied both verbal and nonverbal aspects of delivery (Duffy, 1917), and the aims of the basic course included promoting better speaking habits, practicing speaking, overcoming stagefright, perfecting delivery, advancing thinking, and improving organization (Hollister, 1917). The contemporary course largely reflects these concerns (Gibson, Hanna, & Huddleston, 1985; Hargis, 1956; Trank & Lewis, 1991).

Over the last 40 years, regular surveys of American colleges and universities have monitored the nature of the basic course (Dedmond & Frandsen, 1964; Gibson. Gruner. Brooks, & Petrie, 1970; Gibson, Gruner, Hanna, Smythe, & Hayes, 1980; Gibson, Hanna, & Huddleston, 1985; Gibson, Hanna, & Leichty, 1991; Gibson, Kline, & Gruner, 1974; Hargis, 1956; Jones, 1954; London, 1964; Trank & Lewis, 1991). These surveys revealed few changes. Hargis (1956) found that the main foci of the basic speech course were speech composition, speech delivery, audience analysis, voice, and diction. Almost thirty years later Gibson, Hanna, and Huddleston (1985) found similar results: outlining, delivery, and audience analysis were three of the six concepts allocated the most class time.

The basic public speaking course has changed so little in the past 80 years because public speaking special theory has weathered the test of time well. Special theories that are not robust do not prevail over time; this special theory is certainly well-constructed and very useful. However, the literature does reveal criticisms of both public speaking theory and the basic speech course. For example, one long-lived debate involves ethics, a topic which is not given much emphasis in the course. Williamson (1939) and Andersen (1979) identified ethics as a necessary topic in the basic speech course, and Greenburg (1986) pointed out that the topic is still virtually ignored in the class.

A more recent criticism is that the basic course does not teach work-related skills. Hanna (1978) found this to be a particular criticism in the business world. Johnson and Szczupakiewicz (1987) reported similar results. Whereas alumni listed informative skills, listening, and handling questions as the most important communication skills at work, faculty endorsed outlining, topic selection, and entertaining speaking as the most important areas of instruction.

Textbooks and the Basic Public Speaking Course

The first textbook was printed in America in 1650, and by the mid-twentieth century more than 2,500,000,000 textbooks were being printed worldwide (Benthul, 1978). By then, textbooks had become the core of classes, and such a wide variety of texts were available that the number was almost unmanageable. Textbooks have become a dominant aspect of American education. Benthul wrote: "The textbook is the most available, the most relied upon, and the most common material used in the classrooms of America" (p. 5).

A high quality textbook is an important component of an effective first course in speech communication. Teague (1961) noted that the textbook provides a common core around which to build a syllabus. Furthermore, it helps conserve precious class time by making available an explanation of principles and of procedures that need not be discussed at length during class period (p. 469). Although teachers are free to deviate from the material included in the texts, textbooks provide a good overview of the basic concepts students will be exposed to during the course.

Some scholars have suggested that some information in speech textbooks leaves room for improvement. Pelias (1989) noted that public speaking texts' treatment of communication apprehension was — while not incorrect — inadequate. Allen and Preiss (1990) found that many persuasion texts contained incorrect information, and others were incomplete in their coverage of the material. For example, of the texts they studied that mentioned fear appeals, six had information that agreed with a meta-analysis of existing research, four had conclusions that were vague or unclear, and fifteen had conclusions that were inconsistent with the meta-analysis.

Speech organization is taught in most basic courses. However, there is little research backing the information presented in the texts. Pearson and Nelson (1990) noted that

Monroe's motivated sequence appears in most popular texts, even though it has "never been shown to be a more effective organizational pattern than other methods of arranging a public speech" (p. 6). Logue (1988) reviewed research concerning the effectiveness of using a preview statement and found that "the rationale and empirical support for it are not well grounded" (p.7).

Future of the Basic Public Speaking Course

Special theories are specific to time and culture; that is, a special theory is meant to apply to a particular context (Bormann, 1980). As the American culture changes with time, the special theory may need adaptation to keep abreast of the times. Gray (1989) wrote, the basic course "needs to be kept current with societal needs and expectations" (p. 3). Thus, in addition to needing modification due to error in the theory, scholars may also need to update special theory because of changing times. However, careless meddling with a proven formula is almost certain to reduce its quality, and public speaking special theory has repeatedly demonstrated high quality. For educators to keep the basic speech course at its maximum potential, careful study is necessary.

Several publications in recent years have suggested that some changes may be warranted for the basic course (e.g., Gray, 1989; Pearson & Nelson, 1990; Trank, 1983). This investigation was intended to take a close look at exactly what is contained in the texts--to adhere to the old adage "look before you leap." The purpose was to study the principles of public speaking as presented in current textbooks. Two research questions were investigated:

RQ1: What are the principles of public speaking included in current basic public speaking textbooks?

RQ2: How much space is allotted to each principle in basic public speaking texts?

METHOD

Sample

Since this study examined the principles of public speaking, the population was the set of all introductory-level college public speaking texts currently in use. This definition excludes those texts that are hybrids containing both public speaking and interpersonal communication, as well as other public speaking books such as persuasion, debate, or argumentation texts.

The purposive sample was intended to represent the most popular public speaking texts. There exists no comprehensive list of the top-selling textbooks, so the list had to be gleaned from available surveys. Although this method probably does not give a completely accurate picture of textbook popularity, the top several texts were evident from surveys, and a number of others were clearly also popular. A sample of 12 texts was chosen that was definitely representative of a large share of the market and is indicative of the nature of basic public speaking texts.

Textbook popularity was rated by Gibson, Hanna, and Huddleston (1985); Gibson, Hanna, & Leichty (1990); and Pelias (1989). Pelias's survey revealed 12 popular texts, and Gibson et al. (1985, 1990) reported seven of the most popular. The sample chosen (alphabetically listed) included Ayres and Miller's (1990) *Effective Public Speaking* (3rd ed.), Bradley's (1988) *Fundamentals of Speech Communication. The Credibility of Ideas* (5th ed.), DeVito's (1990) *The Elements of Public Speaking* (4th ed.), Ehninger. Gronbeck, McKerrow, and Monroe's (1986) *Principles of Speech Communication* (lOth ed.), Hanna and Gibson's (1989) *Public Speaking for Personal Success* (2nd ed.), Hunt's (1987) *Public Speaking* (2nd ed.), Lucas's (1989) *The Art of Public Speaking* (3rd ed.), McCroskey's (1986) *An Introduction to Rhetorical Communi-*

cation (5th ed.). Nelson and Pearson's (1990) *Confidence in Public Speaking* (4th ed.), Osborn and Osborn's (1991) *Public Speaking* (2nd ed.); Samovar and Mills's (1989) *Oral Communication: Message and Response* (7th ed.), and Verderber's (1991) *The Challenge of Effective Public Speaking* (8th ed.).

Procedures

Content analysis was used to examine these 12 texts. There exists no single correct method for content analysis; rather the researcher must be tailored to each study. Budd, Thorpe, and Donohew (1967) noted "Because each research project is unique, the analyst must adapt, revise, or combine techniques to fit his [or her] individual problems" (p. ix). The method used in this study was adapted from the works of Budd et al. (1967), Holsti (1969), and Stempel (1989).

The research followed a three-step process. First, the unit of analysis was selected. Second, the categories were constructed, and finally, the data were coded and weighted. Since this study was conducted to flesh out the principles of public speaking, the topic was chosen as the unit of analysis. Weighting is typically operationalized by counting the number of words, sentences, paragraphs, or pages devoted to a topic (Holsti, 1969). Since most basic public speaking textbooks use the same size of page and same size type, the page was used as the unit for weighting.

The construction of categories was an important concern, since one of the objectives of the study was to determine the basic principles. Grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) was adopted to avoid imposing assumptions on the data. Once the categories were delineated (see Table 1), the items were weighted to address the second research question. Topics were rank-ordered according to units of analysis, by averaging the number of pages written about each.

RESULTS

The analysis was conducted as described. Employment of grounded theory required that the researcher code the first text into as many categories as possible, then check to see if the categories were representative of the data. Then the second text was coded: information was coded into existing categories, or when none existed, new categories were created. If the initial categories did not work for the second text, the two were examined together and the categories modified to work for both. Ultimately, through this process of constant comparison, all the texts were coded. As the research progressed, underlying uniformities began to emerge. These incidents were grouped into larger categories. Outlines of the resulting principles were composed, quantity was recorded, and reliability determined.

Reliability was calculated in the manner recommended by Stempel (1989). The researcher (the first author) recoded one of the early textbooks in entirety. The results of the recoding were compared with the master list and the number correct was divided by the total. Mistakes involved failure to recognize an item, coding an item that was not relevant, and coding an item into the wrong category. This method yielded a reliability of .97.

Only face validity could be achieved for this study. To determine it, the results were compared with the contents of the public speaking half of some hybrid (public speaking and interpersonal communication) texts. Almost all of the topics appeared in these texts, and they comprehensively covered the main points. Texts used for comparison were Brooks and Heath's (1989) *Speech Communication* (6th ed.) and Adler and Rodman's (1991) *Understanding Human Communication* (4th ed.).

Table 1
Topics in Public Speaking Textbooks
Rank-ordered by Space Allotted

Topic	Mean Number of Pages
Persuasive Speaking	27.2
Language	20.9
Informative Speaking	19.5
Audience	18.0
Getting Information	14.9
Presentational Aids	14.7
Listening	14.1
Reasoning	13.6
Organization	13.0
Vocal and Nonverbal Aspects	13.0
Speaking on Special Occasions	12.9
Support Material	12.1
Outlining	9.8
Introduction	9.2
The Speaker	9.2
Selecting a Topic	6.6
Anxiety	5.5
Message Theory	5.5
Conclusion	5.3
Modes of Delivery	4.6
Determining Purpose	3.6
Thesis Sentence and Main Points	3.6
Ethics	3.3
Practice	1.5

Research question one asked "What are the basic principles of public speaking?" This question was answered by coding the bodies of the texts. Presumably, authors included all of the information that they consider essential in the body of the text, reserving the appendix for material they consider either optional or of lesser importance. Thus, appendices were not coded. The results of coding appear on Table 1.

Table 2
Supracategories of Public Speaking Topics
Rank-ordered by Space Allotted

Topic	Mean Number of Pages
Speech Preparation	97.6
Taxonomy of Public Speaking	59.6
Activities and Elements	54.9
Speech Delivery	45.0
Message Theory	5.5

The 24 principles could be grouped into five overall categories: message theory, speech preparation, speech delivery, activities and elements in public speaking, and a taxonomy of public speaking. Message theory explained a model of the communication transaction: sender, receiver, message, noise, and feedback. Speech preparation included discussion of: a) procedural steps for preparing a speech: topic and purpose selection, getting material, organization, and outlining, and b) discussion of structural components of a speech: the introduction, body, conclusion, and presentational aids. Speech delivery discussed performance anxiety, language, modes of delivery (extemporaneous, improptu, etc.), and vocal and nonverbal aspects of delivery. Activities and elements included listening, reasoning, the speaker (primarily information about source credibility), audience analysis, and discussion of the components of the communication process (sender, receiver, message, feedback, etc.). Finally, taxonomy of public speaking contained information specific to informative speeches, persuasive speeches, and special occasions (namely, introducing a speaker).

To provide a better understanding of the composition of the texts, the number of pages allotted to each topic was calculated. This procedure addressed RQ2, concerning how much space is allotted to each principle in basic public speaking texts. The results listed in Table 1, are the mean number of pages per topic. Persuasive speaking, language, and informative speaking were allocated the greatest amount of text space, while the thesis sentence and main points, ethics, and practice received the least text space.

DISCUSSION

Trank (1983) suggested that textbook authors are under pressure from publishers to keep their books in conformity with competing texts. The results of this study lend support to this claim. Content analysis revealed that although each text was easily categorized into the 24 topics found in Table 1, the specific information about the topics was often different. This finding suggests that even though writers may not always be in agreement about the facts, pressure to standardize may keep them writing about the same concepts. Thus, although the study was intended to flesh out principles, it produced an outline of topics with each text taking its own unique position about each one.

This study provides a good overview of the composition of basic public speaking textbooks. Speech preparation is allotted the most space, and message theory is allowed the least. The rest of the pages are distributed roughly equally among: a taxonomy of speaking situations, activities and elements in the public speaking arena, and speech delivery. If the number of pages devoted to a given topic is correlated with the perceived importance of the topic, these findings would suggest that textbooks are most concerned with helping students prepare good speeches. Additionally, providing knowledge of relevant variables and delivery techniques is also important.

Table 1 illustrates that the basic public speaking course synthesizes information from a vast diversity of disciplines for use in a unified product. For example, production of an effective speech requires that a student do the following. First, she or he must begin by selecting a topic and purpose (English composition). Then the topic must be thoroughly researched involving library research and interviewing experts (components of getting information)--aspects of library science and journalism. Included in the case will probably by reasoning (logic and argumentation), and the whole argument must be prepared and presented ethically (ethics, philosophy, and theology). Since presentational aids are vital to learning, applying principles of art and design will prove beneficial to communicating effectively via the visual channel. So, in many ways the basic speech course can be considered a capstone to the fundamental curricula: the course in which students must synthesize and apply their knowledge.

Post hoc analysis revealed that the specific topics from Table 1 could be clustered into four groups. These groups represent logical groupings of the specific topics listed in Table 1 based on the depth of treatment each received (do not confuse these *depth of treatment* clusters with the *topical* clusters discussed previously). Persuasive speaking, language, informative speaking, and the audience were the primary foci of the textbooks. These topics were thoroughly discussed and relevant issues were explicated. The second group consisted of getting information, presentational aids, listening, reasoning, organization, vocal and nonverbal aspects, speaking on special occasions, and support material. These topics, while allocated substantially less space than those in group one, were still well-developed and treated as important building blocks in developing good speech skills.

The third group included outlining, the introduction, the speaker, selecting a topic, anxiety, message theory of communication, the conclusion, and modes of delivery. Discussion of these topics included a brief overview of the important information, but little exploration of complexities. The final group — determining purpose, thesis sentence, ethics, and practice — was composed of topics that were mentioned, but not reported in depth. Key ideas were mentioned, but little discussion accompanied the points.

The findings of this study are not an indictment of the basic speech class.

Like any human creation, the basic public speaking course is not perfect. This investigation a current overview of the most-used textbooks for the course that has become the mainstay of the discipline.

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Evaluation of a Basic Course in Speech Communication

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Much evidence demonstrates that communication skills are important for effective job performance. In an American workforce survey, executives and labor unions identified speaking and listening skills as important for all job categories in all industries (Henry & Raymond, 1982). In addition, the centrality of communication skills is underlined by the frequency with which organizations invest in communication training. *Training* Magazine's 1990 Industry Report found that approximately 78.2% of organizations with 100 or more employees offer communication skills training (Gordon, 1990).

With the importance of communication in mind, numerous researchers have attempted to identify the specific communication skills most essential for careers. DiSalvo (1980) concluded that the most critical communication skills for entry-level positions are listening, writing, oral reporting, motivating/persuading, interpersonal skills, informational interviewing, and small group problem solving. Wolvin and Corley (1984), in a survey of 446 alumni of a basic communication course, found listening, interpersonal communication, informative briefing, and small group activities to be most frequently used in different career fields. In addition, Wolvin and Corley discovered that specific skills within these broader categories that were considered most important to work included communicating in relationships; critically evaluating messages; comprehending messages; organizing ideas; locating accurate information; understanding the beliefs, attitudes, and values of others; presenting ideas; and gaining and keeping attention.

Ideally, the identification of communication skills areas important to careers would result in modifications of basic communication courses to emphasize these areas. However, basic courses are often modeled after "typical" courses (see Boileau, 1985; Gibson, Hanna, & Leichty, 1989; Pearson & Sorenson, 1980), with little attention given to identified communication needs. A relevant problem is that the faculty who design the model courses may not be in touch with students' needs. Johnson and Szczupakiewicz (1987) found that faculty and alumni differed in their views of what public speaking skills were most important in the workplace. Faculty rated informative speaking, persuasive speaking, and gathering supporting materials as the top three skills, while alumni rated informative speaking, listening, and handling questions and answers as the top three skills necessary to function effectively as a communicator.

Bendtschneider and Trank (1990) argued that educators should not be as concerned with making their course consistent with offerings of faculty at other schools as with ensuring that their course fulfills their students' needs. In a survey of basic course instructors, alumni, and students, Bendtschneider and Trank (1990) determined the extent to which the communication skills alumni and students found most important were appropriately treated by the instructors in the basic course. Their results showed some statistically significant differences between what was considered important and what was taught, but they concluded overall that the institution's basic course appeared to adequately respond to students' communication needs.

While much of the research on the basic speech communication course, including the study by Bendtschneider and Trank (1990), is designed to determine the effectiveness of the content of the course, few studies have dealt with the outcomes of the course. Some of the earlier studies on the outcomes of taking a speech communication course have suggested that students' communication skills do improve. Gilkinson (1944), for example, summarized the research prior to 1944 and concluded that "the evidence as it stands is wholly consistent with the theory that favorable changes in speech behavior and social attitudes occur as a result of formal speech instruction" (p. 100). Thompson (1967) reviewed the literature on the effects of speech training and concluded that "competent instructors with clear, specific goals appear likely to obtain significant results" (p. 158) in beginning speech courses.

More recently, Manheimer (1990) looked at skills necessary to *complete* the basic course but was led to conclude that "a certain level of verbal skill, math proficiency, and prior overall academic performance (as reflected in high school graduating class percentile and reported G.P.A.) are necessary but not sufficient requisites for success in this basic course" (pp. 13-14). Future studies evaluating the outcomes of the basic course must go beyond determining whether students complete the course to determining whether students attained the communication skills the course intended to develop.

The purpose of the present study was to evaluate the effects of a basic communication course on students' communication skills. The focus of this research was not on course content or on course completion, but on changes in students' communication abilities.

METHOD

Subjects

Subjects were 393 students enrolled in a basic communication course during Spring 1990. The group was composed of approximately 55% freshmen, 21% sophomores, 13% juniors, and 10% seniors. Only 3% had participated in college level speech communication classes before the study, but 32% had participated in high school speech classes. While 76 subjects (19%) did not report their major (many indicating they were "undecided"), the remaining students came from a variety of fields. There were 43 different college majors represented in the group. The most popular category of majors enrolled in the speech communication course was business-related fields, with 151 subjects (38%) from these majors. Other categories of majors represented included communications fields (10%), arts and humanities (8%), behavioral and social sciences (8%), and design fields, natural and physical sciences, training and education, agricultural sciences, and high technology fields, with less than 5% of subjects in each.

Design and Procedure

A one-group pretest-posttest design was used to assess changes in communication skills. All subjects completed a questionnaire during the first week of class before they were given a course syllabus and again during the last week of class after they had completed their final graded speech assignment. Subjects were asked to provide the last four digits of their social security number on both questionnaires so that pre- and post-questionnaires could be matched for each student. Students who were not present during the first or last week of the semester or who failed to provide the last four digits of their social security number were not included in the study. A total of 393 students met these criteria.

Basic Communication Course

The basic communication course was a hybrid course designed to introduce students to communication skills and theories important for their career fields, using the textbook

Communicating: A Social and Career Focus by Berko, Wolvin, and Wolvin (1989). The course covered topics of communication process, intrapersonal communication, verbal and nonverbal communication, listening, interpersonal communication, interviewing, small-group communication, and public speaking. Major assignments included a career information-gathering interview project, a small group project, an informative briefing, a persuasive speech, and other assignments at the discretion of the instructors (trained graduate teaching assistants and part-time instructors). The typical class size was 22.

Communication Skills Measurement

The questionnaires contained 24 items which corresponded with different communication skills covered in the course. During the first and last weeks of the course, subjects assessed their own ability in each of the areas on a scale ranging from O (none at all) to 7 (great). In addition, subjects were asked to list in rank order the three skills areas which they would most like to improve.

The 24 items included on the instrument corresponded directly with the objectives and content of the basic course, as taught at this institution. Major course objectives focus on intrapersonal, interpersonal (including interviewing and small group discussion), and public communication. Questionnaire items representing these broad objectives were selected to reflect the specific content of the readings, class activities and discussions. For example, course coverage of interpersonal communication treats personal relationship issues broadly, and provides more focused activities and readings on conflict management and assertiveness skills specifically. Items were therefore included on the questionnaire to directly represent course content on interpersonal communication (see Table 1, items #6-8). Additional items were created to reflect special communication concerns not directed to only one aspect of the course--namely, listening (items #9, 16, 20, and 24) and communication comfort (items #10, 13, 17, and 21), which are felt to be important in all communication situations.

RESULTS

Perceptions of communication skills before and after the course are reported in Table 1, along with the amount of change from pre- to post-evaluation for each item. Results indicate that subjects' perceptions of their communication skills improved in every area during the course of the semester.

To determine whether changes in individuals' perceptions of their communication skills were significant, eight skills groupings were created from the 24 items and repeated measures analysis of variance were run for each of these. Results, reported in Table 2, illustrate that significant differences beyond the .05 level were found for each grouping. Skills groupings with the strongest, most consistent changes (as indicated by statistics) were public communication, communication comfort and interviewing skills.

Finally, we analyzed the frequency with which students identified each area as one of the three they would most like to improve (before the semester began). Results are listed in Table 3. Of 364 students responding to this question, the three skill areas most frequently cited as areas they would most like to improve were also the three areas in which the greatest improvements occurred. These were "presenting speeches in front of an audience," "feeling comfortable when delivering speeches" and "preparing and organizing speeches."

Table 1
Perceptions of Communication Skills*

		Before	After	Change
1.	Feeling confident about yourself	4.9	5.4	+0.5
2.	Feeling comfortable with others' perceptions of you	4.6	5.2	+0.6
3	Reasoning with people	5.4	5.5	+0.1
4.	Using language appropriately	5.1	5.5	+0.4
5.	Understanding nonverbal messages	4.9	5.4	+0.5
6.	Communicating in personal relations	[illegible]	5.4	[illegible]
7.	Managing conflict in personal relationships	4.7	5.1	+0.4
8.	Asserting yourself (without becoming aggressive)	4.6	5.1	+0.5
9.	Listening to others in personal relationships	5.6	5.7	+0.1
10.	Feeling comfortable communicating in personal relationships	5.2	5.5	+0.3
11.	Preparing questions and materials for an interview	4.1	5.3	+1.2
12.	Conducting an interview	4.1	5.3	+1.2
13.	Feeling comfortable when conducting an interview	4.1	5.2	+1.1
14.	Completing tasks in a small group situation	5.2	5.7	+0.5
15.	Interacting with others in a small group situation	5.2	5.8	+0.6
16	Listening to others in a small group situation	5.5	5.9	+0.4
17.	Feeling comfortable communicating in a small group situation	5.2	5.8	+0.6
18.	Preparing and organizing speeches	4.0	5.5	+1.5
19.	Presenting speeches in front of an audience	3.6	5.1	+1.5
20.	Listening to speeches	5.1	5.5	+0.4
21.	Feeling comfortable when delivering speeches	3.3	4.9	+1.6
22.	Persuading people	4.5	5.2	+0.7
23.	Your overall ability speaking to others in different situations	4.6	5.4	+0.8
24.	Your overall ability listening to others in different situations	5.3	5.8	+0.5

* Scores are based on an ability scale ranging from 0 (none at all) to 7 (great).

Table 2
Significance of Skill Changes

	Before	After	Change	Statistic	Prob
Intrapersonal Communication (items #1-2)	4.8	5.3	+0.5	F(1,391 = 110.10	.00
Interpersonal Communication (items #6, 7, 9, 10)	5.2	5.5	+0.3	F(1,388) = 37.57	.00
Interviewing (items #11-13)	4.1	5.3	+1.2	F(1,385) = 341.82	.00
Small Group Communication (items #14-17)	5.3	5.8	+0.5	F1,388) = 114.50	.00
Public Communication (items #18, 19, 21 & 22)	3.9	5.2	+1.3	F(1,384) = 463.22	.00
Listening (items #9, 16, 20, & 24)	5.4	5.7	+0.3	F(1,385) = 63.61	.00
Communication Comfort (items #10, 13, 17, & 21)	4.5	5.4	+0.9	F(1,384) = 351.41	.00
Overall Communication Ability (items #23-24)	5.0	5.6	+0.6	F(1,392) = 187.63	.00

Table 3: Areas for Improvement

	# Subjects*	% Subjects**
Presenting speeches in front of an audience	187	51.4%
Feeling comfortable when delivering speeches	174	47.8%
Preparing and organizing speeches	111	30.5%
Asserting yourself (without becoming aggressive	66	18.1%
Persuading people	60	16.5%
Feeling confident about yourself	52	14.3%
Your overall ability speaking to others in different situations	51	14.0%
Feeling comfortable with others' perceptions ;of you	48	13.2%
Conducting an interview	46	12.6%
Managing conflict in personal relationships	44	12.1%
Preparing questions and materials for an interview	42	11.5%
Using language appropriately	37	10.2%
Communicating in personal relationships	33	9.1%
Feeling comfortable communicating in personal relationships	26	7.1%
Feeling comfortable when conducting an interview	25	6.9%
Understanding nonverbal messages	20	5.5%
Reasoning with people	13	3.6%
Your overall ability listening to others in different situations	10	2.7%
Listening to speeches	10	2.7%
Listening to others in personal relationships	9	2.5%
Feeling comfortable communicating in a small group situation	9	2.5%
Interacting with others in a small group situation	8	2.2%
Completing tasks in a small group situation	7	1.9%
Listening to others in a small group situation	3	0.8%

* Frequency students listed as one of three areas for improvement (out of 364 responses)

** Percent based on each student listing up to *three* items (so will not add up to 100%)

DISCUSSION

Results indicate that the basic communication course had a positive effect on students' perceptions of their communication skills and on their comfort in communicating. Since all areas listed on the survey questionnaire directly corresponded with areas covered in the course, it is not surprising to find improvement in all areas. The strongest effects were in public communication, communication comfort, and interviewing skills. Students began with lower overall scores in these areas and resultingly had more room for improvement.

In addition, results illustrate that effects on communication skills may be stronger in areas where students have the greatest desire or need to improve. Students indicated the strongest need to improve in public speaking skills and changes were greatest in these areas.

The positive results of the study must, however, be accepted with caution. Several factors may have affected the results. First, students may have inflated their scores, perhaps in reaction to positive feelings about the course or instructor. However, this phenomenon would not explain why scores varied among different skill areas.

Second, students' perceptions of communication skill areas may have changed over time due to new knowledge gained from completing the class. Students may have had a different understanding of skill areas from the pre to the posttest so that the scores could not be directly compared. However, this phenomenon would probably cause their *initial* scores to be inflated because of a lack of awareness of all the skills involved in each area (e.g., all the skills involved in listening), so actual results may have been even greater than found.

Third, students may not have been objective in rating themselves. This should not pose much of a problem, though, because we have no reason to believe the students would not be consistently subjective in completing the measure both times.

Finally, the lack of a comparison group may be problematic. Since a control group was not used, we cannot be certain the changes in students' perceptions of their communication skills were due to the basic course. However, for so many people to consistently improve and at varying levels in different skill areas, it would be difficult to attribute great variance in effects due to maturation.

The present study provides some evidence of a basic speech communication course having positive effects on students' perceptions of their communication skills. It would be useful to correlate students' perceptions of their improved communication skills with some behavioral may serve as indicators of actual skill improvement. Ratings of videotapes of student presentations, content analyses of instructor and/or classmate critiques, and even evaluations of student projects could be useful measures. Future researchers are also challenged to find out if the effects are generalizable to different courses which may emphasize other skill areas and to determine if the changes in communication skills transfer to a variety of settings, such as academic, career, and social settings. Meanwhile, in this era of accountability and budget down-sizing, it is encouraging to know that students do perceive that we are accomplishing our objectives in the basic course. As our results reveal, instruction in intrapersonal, interpersonal, and public communication can influence students' perceptions of their ability and comfort as communicators.

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Critical Thinking Is/As Communication

Warren Sandmann

The basic course in communication serves a variety of purposes. It functions as a core course in most communication departments. It serves as a service course for communication and a variety of other disciplines. For almost all students, it is their first introduction to communication. Unfortunately, for many students, the basic course is the only communication course they take. The basic course is necessary in fulfilling all three of these functions, but it also has a fourth function, one that is of increasing necessity as education continues its trend toward increasing specialization. The basic course should and must serve as the basic course in a liberal arts education. This course must not only teach the skills and subject matter, it must provide students with the basic skills necessary to function not only as scholars and professional in their chosen fields, but also as reasoning, reflecting and acting participants in society. The basic course can do all of these functions by centering instruction and philosophy around the concept of critical thinking as a liberal art.

CRITICAL THINKING

This is a buzzword in contemporary educational theory. It has been defined by Ralph Ennis (1987) as "...reasonable, reflective thinking that is focused on deciding what to believe or do" (p. 46). M. Carrol Tama (1989) defines critical thinking as a "...way of reasoning that demands adequate support for one's beliefs and an unwillingness to be persuaded unless the support is forthcoming" (p. 64). Joseph Eulie (1988) sees critical thinking as one side of a dichotomy. On one side is the content matter, the stuff of education. On the other side are the "...thinking skills of reasoning, evaluating, drawing conclusions, making comparisons, and seeing consequences..." (p. 260). Virginia Rankin (1988) offers an even simpler definition of critical thinking, defining is as "...meta-cognition--thinking about thinking" (p. 28). What all these definitions have in common is a view of critical thinking as a process that is separate from any discipline or subject matter. Critical thinking is presented as a value-free process that can be used to evaluate knowledge. This dominant view of critical thinking fails to acknowledge that content matter is influenced by the pedagogy applied to it, just as the pedagogy one applies to a content matter. The importance of critical thinking in education pedagogy is noted by the prime position it has been awarded in a number of educational reform proposals, most notably "A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform." This 1983 report, issued by the *National Commission on Excellence in Education*, emphasizes the techniques of critical thinking in all five of the "New Basics" it proposes for the core of a national curriculum (p 14). It is the basic course in communication that offers the most appropriate venue for this teaching.

What makes the communication course the most appropriate venue for teaching critical thinking? The short answer is this: Contemporary communication theory teaches us that language/discourse is more than a mode of transmission for argument and evaluation. Discourse also functions to shape the issues being discussed. In short, discourse not only allows us to argue and evaluate answers to problems of public argument and policy, it also functions to determine what questions we can ask about the issues, what evidence is acceptable in supporting our claims, and exactly how the issues of public argument are framed.

Charles Willard (1989) offers one view of contemporary communication theory as it relates to critical thinking as an interdependent process of construction and critiquing issues of public argument. Willard argues that societal conditions and constraints, those beliefs that function as "taken-for-granteds" within a particular community, help determine what will be accepted as evidence — as "proof" for accepting a certain claim. Different communities, therefore, have different standards for what counts as "proof" — which means that in order for a person to argue successfully and completely within different communities, that person has to understand the societal conditions and constraints (p. 129).

It is through discourse/language that these societal conditions and constraints are both understood and created. As Ziman (1968) has noted, all "knowledge" is social knowledge which has been validated by a particular audience or public. Discourse is both the channel of social knowledge and the shaper of social knowledge. How language shapes the issues under contention encourages certain types of argumentative practices and discourages others; language privileges certain forms of evidence and marginalizes others; language creates some possible answers and obfuscates others.

McKerrow (1989) argues that we need to make the shift from a view of discourse as the use of power to "create" knowledge (p. 91). In a similar vein, Walter Fisher (1989) argues that it is through discursive practices — he uses the term "narrative" — that we create our owns standards of evaluation (p. 63). Fisher terms these standards "good reasons" (see also Karl Wallace, 1963) and says that "...the production and practice of good reasons are ruled by matters of history, biography, culture and character..." (p. 64). In turn, as argued by McKerrow above, it is discourse that also creates the communities (and their standards) we call history, biography, culture and character. As a brief example, consider the question of racially offensive speech on a college campus. This issues has received much public attention recently, and has seen a number of colleges and universities attempt to implement codes of conduct and expression designed to deter racist expression.

If this argument is framed as one where the goal is to create a better and safer educational atmosphere for minority students who have been victimized, and where the problem is discursively framed as one where incidents of racially offensive speech and conduct are representative of larger societal and institutional racism, and where the belief is that restricting racist expression and conduct will improve the environment and lead to a better society as well, then evidence of racial incidents are privileged as arguments for restricting speech, restricting speech is privileged as the best solution, and the overall goal of creating a safer educational atmosphere dominates the public argument. Creating a community of equality and safety prevails over possible restrictions to otherwise free expression of opinion.

On the other hand, if the issue is instead framed as one of the rights of the majority to express themselves in accordance with established First Amendment law, and incidents of racially offensive speech and conduct are discursively framed as isolated incidents of "sick" individuals, and the goal is presented as the preservation of free and open expression, then incidents of racially offensive speech lose their power as evidence, the 200-year tradition and language of the First Amendment overpower all other modes of argument, and the overall goal of protecting free expression dominates the public argument. Racially offensive expression is then seen as the "price" a society must pay — especially certain members — for the larger good of free expression.

To fully understand the role that discourse plays as both the medium and the means of public argument and critical thinking requires at least an essay-length treatment. Communication must be seen as more than simply a method by which critical thinking can take place. Given this view, the basic course in communication is the most appropriate venue for instruction in communication. Other disciplines rely on the power of discourse to create their means of investigation and their standards of evaluation. A communication course, on the other hand, will teach students that it is necessary to not only understand how arguments are constructed and evaluated, but also how those constructions and evaluations are dependent on communication helping to shape social reality.

CRITICAL THINKING IN COMMUNICATION

In the field of communication pedagogy, critical thinking has traditionally been associated with argumentation theory (Warnick and Inch, 1989) and small group decision-making (Bormann and Bormann, 1980). Just as in the definitions above, these views of critical thinking try to create a process that can be applied to a subject regardless of the content of that subject matter. Warnick and Inch see critical thinking as a reasoning process that involves the testing, evaluation and critique of reasoned claims and support for those claims. Out of this process, they state, will come decisions that are better able to withstand reasoned scrutiny. In evaluating the work of decision-making small groups, Bormann and Bormann stress communication skills, social skills, cohesiveness and role development (pp. 149-150). While these definitions and uses of critical thinking have value, they are missing a key element that can distort critical thinking: Pedagogical processes cannot be separated from the content matter of education. Content and process are inseparably linked, with process helping to determine just what the content is and content influencing the pedagogical process involved. In evaluating a group decision, it is not enough to evaluate the process. The decision reached by the process has to be evaluated as well. The communication skills used in critical thinking cannot be seen as separate from the content of critical thinking, the outcome of the critical thinking process. The "what" of communication is not separate from the "how" and "why" of communication.

The practice of critical thinking must be both theorized and taught as more than just a technique. All techniques, all practices of communication, area embedded in a social and cultural context that influences their outcomes. There is no such thing as a technique or communication skill that is separate from the information processed by that technique or the outcome achieved by that technique (Poster, 1989, p. 4). Too many of the authors and theorists mentioned above share Eulie's belief that the content matter of a discipline can be separated form skills of critical thinking. Critical thinking cannot be divorced from the subject matter with which it is concerned. In its historical practice in the development of communication, critical thinking was always seen as a meld of technique and content. Classical rhetorical theory, most notably that of Cicero, highlights the interdependence of content and technique. We see that skills used in evaluating the content cannot be separated from the content itself. We see in Ciceronean theory an approach that elevates critical thinking from mere technique to the heart of education: Preparing well-informed, reasoning citizens for participation in civic life.

PRECEPTS OF CRITICAL THINKING

Eulie offers some strategies for teaching critical thinking skills. Foremost in his approach, however, is the idea that "Content is the 'what' of education; critical thinking forms the basis of the 'how' or process of education and is the other side of the educational coin" (p. 260). Though Eulie puts critical thinking skills and content on the same educational coin, he places them in opposite sides, suggesting that they are two independent concepts. It is ironic, then, that one of the major strategies Eulie develops, the developmental lesson, operates according to his directions as a meld of process and content. Eulie wants to present historical occurrences as more than a list of facts. He wants to get to the "deeper comprehension" involved in understanding historical occurrences as more than simple collections of otherwise "isolated and irrelevant fact" (p. 261). To do this, Eulie requires students to relate historical occurrences to a central or guiding idea or principle that is relevant to their lives. In his example, he uses the conflict between cartoonist Thomas Nash and the Tammany Hall ring of Boss Tweed. The historical facts and personages are all presented, but the students go beyond the recitation of facts to attempt to see this single historical event as part of a greater struggle, that between corruption of public officials and the need for vigilance on the part of the public to expose that corruption. To do this, students are involved in class discussions that go beyond recall of facts to focus on questions that are "often open ended in nature and designed to invite deep analysis and even to provoke disagreement" (p. 262). What Eulie fails to acknowledge here, however, is the relationship between the content matter and pedagogical approach being used. The content matter shifts from the historical facts of the case to the underlying values and assumptions because of the student critical thinking skills being used. The content has been altered because of the process. It has become less a recall of an historical event and more a recreation and creation of a value conflict.

Eulie goes on to describe another strategy, that of problem-solving, which he describes as the "highest form of thinking," because "it requires the use of every level of critical thinking" (p. 264). Once again, in his description of this strategy, Eulie dissolves the distinction he previously created between process and product. In describing problem-solving, Eulie states that it "requires not only the solution of problems presented but asking questions or even creating a problem" (p. 264). In giving this description of problem-solving, Eulie is implicitly forced to acknowledge the link between the process involved and the content to which it is applied. "As in all matters of educational methodology, content and process become intertwined. The steps of problem solving must be delineated, and the problems selected have to be meaningful to students" (p. 265). This closer look to critical thinking has demonstrated the interdependence of process and product. By attempting to posit a process that operates independently of the content matter, proponents of critical thinking often miss to downplay the relations between the two, and thereby distort the pedagogical approach by failing to take into account the reciprocal effect that content and approach have on one another.

JoAnn Krapp (1988) also discusses the precepts of critical thinking as it relates to the process of problem-solving. She separates the process into four steps. While all four steps are important to the process, it is the second step that moves this approach above simple technique, that demonstrates once again the relationship between process and product. The second step calls for "[u]nderstanding the ideas contained in the problem. This involves the student's possession of relevant information and with (sic) the transfer of selected portions of his or her store of knowledge related to the problem at hand" (p. 33). This understanding ties the process and the products together. (Note, however, the computer analogy that runs throughout the quotation, demonstrating the process dependency of even this approach.) Krapp's strategy requires both the skill of critical thinking and the context in which the critical thinking takes place: the knowledge base.

Lenore Langsdorf, a member of the National Council for Excellence in Critical Thinking (NCFECT), comments on the traditional split in critical thinking between the process and the substance (1991). She notes how many critical thinking courses have evolved from courses in formal and informal logic to courses in "practical reasoning," showing that those in the forefront of the critical thinking movement are beginning to understand the problems inherent in approaching critical thinking as a process independent of a context. However, when she cites a definition of critical thinking offered to members of NCFECT, the emphasis on a process still remains, despite acknowledgments of the necessity to include context:

> Critical thinking is the intellectually disciplined process of actively and skillfully conceptualizing, applying, analyzing, synthesizing, and/or evaluating information gathered from, or generated by, observation, experience, reflection, reasoning, or communication, as a guide to belief and action. In its exemplary form, it is based on universal intellectual values that transcend subject matters divisions. . . . It entails the examination of those structures or elements of thought implicit in all reasoning (p. 27).

As seen in this statement, there is acknowledgment that knowledge may be "generated" rather than simply transmitted, but that brief acknowledgment is overshadowed by the emphasis on process — applying, analyzing, synthesizing, evaluation — and by the statement that "universal intellectual values that transcend subject matters" guide the most exemplary form of critical thinking. There is no acknowledgment here of the role that communication plays in creating and empowering these "universal values." In this statement, we have Platonic reasoning reasserted as the dominant mode of evaluation and assessment. What is needed, then, is to shift the emphasis from those unproblematic universal values to an emphasis on the role that communication plays in the creation and empowerment of those values.

AN ALTERNATIVE APPROACH TO CRITICAL THINKING

As noted above, the standard approach for the teaching of critical thinking separates the process of critical thinking from the specific task under consideration. In language that may be more familiar to communication professionals, the standard approach conceptualizes critical thinking as a field-invariant process (Toulmin, 1958, p. 14). This means that the process does not depend on the content *or* the context. As exemplified in the standard approach, then, critical thinking posits a set of specific skills which can be taught, a specific practice or sets of practices which can be followed. These specific skills are then transferred to any situation. These specific skills are, in general, the skills of formal and informal logic analysis of the specific case or argument at hand in order to determine if the argument is valid — in other words, to check the argument for the existence of fallacies which would make the argument invalid or unsound[1]

There is no denying that to examine arguments for logical validity is a worthwhile process, and one that requires a trained mind employing a set of specific skills. The problem, however, is that to detect a fallacy in an argument may rob that argument of its logical validity, but it often does little to rob that argument of its power. The condition that this specific argument is addressing still remains, and to detect one or more fallacies in an argument is not to solve the problem at hand. As John McPeck (1990) notes, " . . . even if a *bona fide* fallacy is discovered in a given argument, one can still not infer from this that the opposite point of view is correct . . . At best, all that one can infer is that *this* particular argument is fallacious, but for all that the general point of view could still be true (or preferable)" (p. 7.)

There are other weaknesses to this approach. To examine a position statement or a claim for fallacies, it is first necessary to break that statement down into parts, into individual arguments, and then usually to continue the process by analyzing each argument according to proper syllogistic form. The problem here is apparent. In order to analyze arguments in this fashion, extremely complex conditions are rendered into almost simple yes-no formulations. Therefore, the skills of formal and informal logic, of validity testing and fallacy-hunting, serve well on simple issues, but fail the test when the issue is more complex, as most issues that require true critical thinking are — at least the issues that are spoken of when educators and politicians call for the teaching and employment of critical thinking skills (McPeck, p. 11; NCEE, p. 11). These issues require a knowledge base that cannot be separated from the process of critical thinking.

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[1] See, for example, Francis Dauer, *Critical Thinking: An Introduction to Reasoning*.

Kenneth Johnson (1986) has identified another problem with this process-oriented approach, one that has to do with the very nature of the language we use to analyze the argument: Language imparts qualities to the things observed and discussed. We often forget, however, that these things do not have the qualities we impart to them. We are discussing our observations and reactions (p. 359). Additionally, as Johnson notes, critical thinking in the traditional mode generally requires that we fit a situation to a pre-existing mold, or that we begin the process by imparting to the object our observations. In a sense, we create "verbal maps" of the problem. What happens then, Johnson states, is that we focus on the verbal maps we have created of the problems. These verbal maps are one-step abstractions from the problem. Additionally, these verbal maps are often static and fixed, while the actual problem is dynamic and fluid. The verbal maps we have created of the problem abstract us from the problem and guide us to certain more convenient solutions because of the static nature of the verbal maps. In essence, we solve the problem we have created — not the problem as it existed prior to our fitting it into our own system. This was just a brief overview of the traditional approach to critical thinking and an analysis of some of its failings. The next section of this essay offers an alternative to the traditional approach, and begins to show us how the communication arts are the ideal place to teach and practice critical thinking.

In short, the alternative to the traditional approach to critical thinking outlined above, the approach that emphasizes process as a field-invariant set of specific skills, is to approach critical thinking as an exercise in the acquisition analysis, and critique of the knowledge necessary to effectively "solve" a problem of public controversy and importance (McPeck, p. 35). As McPeck notes, ". . . in most everyday problems worthy of public debate our quandary is seldom about validity, and almost always about the truth of complex information, concepts, and propositions . . . We are not analyzing arguments so much as evaluating data, information, and putative facts" (p. 11). Critical thinking in this mode requires (starting with the basic disciplines that have traditionally formed the liberal arts, the curriculum of most high schools and the core of courses required of virtually all students of a liberal arts school: ". . . an informed study of natural and social sciences, together with history, mathematics, literature, and art"[2]

Critical thinking in this model is then best taught, not as a separate method, and not even as a separate course. Critical thinking is what *should* come out of a traditional liberal arts education. McPeck is well aware that currently this is not always the result of a high school or college education (pp. 28-31). His argument, however, is that it is not the notion of a liberal arts education that is at fault, but many of the current educational practices. Teaching content is too often seen as the simple imparting of knowledge (facts) from the mouth of the teacher to the ears of the student to the mouth of the student to regurgitate on command — the brain comes into play nowhere. Additionally, content-based education is too often plagued by the "Trivial Pursuit" phenomenon: the idea that knowledge does consist of little distinct bits of fact that can be swallowed in bite-size morsels by the student.[3] Additionally, McPeck acknowledges that even when a liberal arts education can impart knowledge that goes beyond the "Trivial Pursuit" phase, it is still a process of knowledge transmission — there is no need in that sort of model for critical thinking.

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[2] In emphasizing traditional liberal arts and the notion of a core curriculum, McPeck sidesteps the controversial issue of what "facts" should constitute this core. See, e.g., Dinesh D'Souza, *Illiberal Education*. McPeck's emphasis on the traditional notion of the liberal arts, however, suggests that the core curriculum would be a very traditional one. This is natural given his view that critical thinking — indeed, education in general — is most necessary to fulfill the goal first set by Thomas Jefferson, that of creating citizens capable of taking part in the preserving a democracy (29).

[3] An interesting example of this sort of "Trivial Pursuit" knowledge is found in the "factoids" that the Cable News network and the Headline News

The cure for this problem, as noted above, is not the addition of a course in skills of critical thinking, but instead a returning of the teaching of the traditional liberal arts. In short, McPeck would have teachers of the traditional disciplines shift their emphasis from the imparting of knowledge as "facts" to an emphasis on the discussion, analysis and critique of the specific knowledge bases endemic to each discipline. McPeck refers to this as a returning rather than a revolution, as most education reformers prefer to term an emphasis on critical thinking. It would be a retuning, McPeck states, since it requires only a shift within the specific discipline, a discipline the teacher is already familiar with, rather than the mastering of an entirely new discipline or set of skills (p. 32). Additionally, this new emphasis on analysis and critique would acknowledge and focus on the epistemic foundations of each of the various disciplines. In other words, this approach would require not the transmission of pre-existing knowledge, but the acquisition and criticism of what passes for knowledge and claims of authority in each discipline — How do I know what I know? Why do I believe this and not something else? It would involve the "reflective skepticism" mentioned above in McPeck's approach to critical thinking, and would also have to include something o n the order of Wayne Booth's "rhetoric of assent". Critical thinking, in short, would be the ability to understand and utilize the specific knowledge bases of each discipline; the ability to question what knowledge does have authority; the ability to understand why certain knowledge claims have more power than others; and the knowledge of

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Network transmit as filler material before commercial breaks — and in the newswriting style of *USA Today*.

what this authority says about the specific discipline and about the larger culture in which it operates. Education would not be the simple imparting of given knowledge, by the self-aware understanding and utilization of knowledge to live in and transform society.[4] This approach to critical thinking has roots in the sophistic training of ancient Greece, roots which are explored in the next section of this essay.

CICERO AND THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF CRITICAL THINKING

Cicero, in his most thorough book on educational theory and practice, *De Oratore* (1988), as well as in a shorter and briefer exposition on the same subject, *De Partitiones Oratoriae* (1982), expounds at length upon the need for the intertwining of the content mater of education and the process by which that content is used, evaluated and obtained. Cicero, in presenting the contrasting views of Antonius and Crassus, argued for the completely educated citizen-orator, one not only skilled in the techniques of oratory (the tools of critical thinking), but also a master of ". . . all important subjects and arts. For it is from knowledge that oratory must derive its beauty and fullness, and unless there is such knowledge well-grasped and comprehended by the speaker, there must be something empty and almost childish in the utterance" (1988, p. 17). In advising his son in De Partitiones, Cicero again returns to the theme that knowledge and skill are inseparable: "Moreover, what readiness of style or supply of matter can a speaker possess on the subject of good and bad, right and wrong, utility and inutility, virtue and vice, without knowing these sciences of primary importance?" (1982, p.

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[4] For a more detailed description of the manner in which this process of education would function, see Henry Giroux, *Schooling and the Struggle for Public Life: Critical Pedagogy in the Modern Age;* Paolo Friere, *Pedagogy of the Oppressed.*

412). Cicero wanted, in other words, to make sure that his son understood that skill and knowledge were inseparable.

This inseparability is best seen, as was noted earlier, in Cicero's presentations of the views of Antonius and Crassus. The two views are not necessarily oppositional, but they do contrast. Crassus wants a totally educated orator, a speaker who is both eloquent and wise. Crassus notes that " . . . excellence in speaking cannot be made manifest unless the speaker fully comprehends the matter he speaks about" (1988, p. 27). Moreover, while good speakers can communicate with polish and style, "[y]et this style, if the underlying subject matter be not comprehended and mastered by the speaker, must inevitably be of no account or even become the sport of universal derision" (p. 39). Quite simply, Crassus is arguing for the complete mastery of skill and substance. Antonius, on the other hand, sees education as an exercise in pragmatics. A wide knowledge base is nice, Antonius argues, but is not necessary. Technique and skill are the vital elements for an educated and effective orator, ". . . since ability to speak ought not to starve and go naked, but to be besprinkled and adorned with a kind of charming variety in many details, it is the part of the good orator to have heard and seen much and to have run over much in thought and reflection, as well as in his own reading, not acquiring this as his own possession, but tasting what belongs to others" (p. 155). The skills of oratory are separate from the knowledge base. ". . . I simply say that theirs [philosophy] and ours [oratory] are two distinct things, and that consummate eloquence can exist quite apart from philosophy" (p. 169).

It is important to note that Cicero, in presenting the views of Antonius, was not simply creating a foil for Crassus — or for himself. It is better to see the views of Crassus and Antonius as arguing for the positioning of skill and substance. Crassus argues that you cannot replace knowledge with skill; that the use of skill and technique without the requisite knowledge is, at best, useless and, at worst, a harm to the citizenry. Antonius argues that skill and technique should be viewed as paramount, but that there also needs to be some sort of base behind the skill — not necessarily equal in importance, but of some importance. This is the crux of the distinction between teaching critical thinking as simply a process and teaching critical thinking as an interdependent mix of process and product. Teaching critical thinking as simply a process is open to the same attacks that have been traditionally offered against rhetoric: form at the expense of substance.

CRITICAL THINKING IN/AS THE BASIC COURSE

Jo Sprague (1990) identifires four fundamental goals of education in general and communication education in particular: transmitting cultural knowledge, developing students' intellectual skills, providing students with career skills, and reshaping the values of society (pp. 19-22). Although all four of these provide opportunities for the mixture of both skills and content of critical thinking, the first and fourth goals are most fitting. In order to transmit cultural knowledge, instructors, students and the public in general will have to decide just what passes for cultural knowledge. They will have to choose, evaluate and defend their choices. This is especially important in the United States, in that our educational practices and our society in general are based on the theory of pluralism and multiculturalism. When elements of our culture appear to be in conflict, which elements do we choose to transmit?

At the same time, the fourth goal, reshaping the values of society, is also ripe for the implementation of critical thinking. There is a key assumption here. Education is always subject to values. We, as teachers, are always teaching values. We are always transmitting cultural values, and we are always changing cultural values in our teaching. There is no such thing as value-free education (Friere, 1970, p. 15). Because of this assumption, the goal of reshaping values, is, essentially, an inevitability: we are reshaping values. The key is to be aware of this fact and to be aware of what effect our teaching has on cultural values. In order to reshape the values of a society, therefore, one must first comprehend just what those values are. One would also have to be aware of the historical and rhetorical development of those values and the positive and negative consequences those values have demonstrated. The effect of removing or adapting those values would also have to be considered, and an organized and well-developed argument would have to be constructed to argue for the changing of those values and for the inclusion or adaptation of new values. In sum, the entire process of critical thinking, with the addition of a relevant and interdependent knowledge base, would have to be brought into play to meet the two goals that Sprague has outlined. That is one reason why the basic communication course is an ideal location for the implementation of critical thinking.

National surveys of instructional practices in the basic communication bourse have indicated that the majority of basic communication courses are taught as an introduction to public speaking (Trank, 1990; Gibson, Hanna and Huddleston, 1985). This is the second reason for the inclusion of critical thinking in the basic communication course. In order to avoid the accusation of Plato's descendants, that communication has no subject matter, and that rhetorical skills are, at best, mere technique and at worst an instrument for distorting the truth, basic communication courses need to emphasize both the process and the product, the techniques of critical thinking, which are quite similar to the techniques for effective public presentation, and the knowledge base that makes those techniques worthwhile. An approach to critical thinking that emphasized both the content and the process, that acknowledges and even celebrates the interdependence of the two, makes the basic communication course the place for instruction in and practice of critical thinking. The following example offers one approach for making the basic speech communication course a course in critical thinking as a liberal art.

TEACHING CRITICAL THINKING IN THE BASIC COURSE

One approach would focus the course around the interdependence of critical thinking skills, traditional public communication skills, group discussion and decision-making skills, and a body of knowledge that would be germane to those skills. The mix of communication skills emphasized in this approach makes this approach appropriate for a basic course focused on public speaking skills, a hybrid course which mixes public speaking and interpersonal and group communication theory and practice, or even a course that is focused on communication theory. Additionally, the emphasis on a body of knowledge — a content — outside of the specific communication skills makes this approach appropriate for basic courses at a variety of educational institutions, helping the instructors tailor the course to the need of individual students. Instructors serve as facilitators, helping students see the interdependence between the knowledge and the skill. Traditional texts could still be used in the course, since they do a fairly effective job of providing models for topic selection, research organization, and presentation — which are basic critical thinking skills. The extra material would be brought into the classroom by the students and would be particular to the student's individual project. In this manner, the students would see the way in which the process influences the product and the product influences the process.

The course would begin with one to two weeks of introductory activities. The instructor would explain the purpose of the course, and the class would take part in activities designed to increase group cohesion and individual disclosure.

Class discussion would focus on relevant issues of local or regional concern. This requires students to distinguish between relevant and irrelevant issues. The issues would be restricted to those of local or regional matters to encourage the students to do research in the field, rather than depend on library sources. If a student desired to focus on more of a national or international issue, that student would be required to demonstrate the local nature of that issue, to tie it to an issue of local concern. Students would also be encouraged to see the connection between these issues and their own lives (Makau, 1990, pp. 205-239). These first few weeks then would focus simultaneously on the content of these problems.

The next phase of the class would involve research into the problem area chosen. Students would be encouraged to engage in field research by getting involved at the immediate level with the issue they had chosen to investigate. Classroom discussion would focus on the topics being discussed as well as techniques for researching and organizing the research. The lectures and discussion in the class would look at such areas as distinguishing between credible and non-credible sources, and tests for the inclusion if evidence. What is important is that these discussions would not be taking place concerning abstract issues. The information the students gather would be the subject of these discussions. Test for evidence would be conducted not simply according to traditional standards, but also in light of the particular project and the particular use to which the information was being obtained.

The first presentations would take place approximately the fifth or sixth week. They would be in the form of a symposium. Classroom discussions of the various topics would allow both the instructor and the students the chance to observe similarities and differences among the individual projects, allowing for the grouping of the presentation around central themes. The advantages of these symposia would be for both the content *and* the process. Students would get a chance to present preliminary research findings, to receive critical comments from both the instructor and other students, and to see what the other students had gathered for information. This interchange between the students should lead to improved research techniques and further research. On a technical level, the symposia would give the students the opportunity to see how different students had arranged similar information, since at least some of the projects would be similar. This could be the focus of a classroom discussion of the topic of arrangement.

The next phase of the class would be focused on further research, refining the research techniques, and discussing the organization of the gathered information. Class discussions would focus on the difficulty of drawing the distinction between information and persuasion. Students, in gathering their material, would be forced to realize that what are often presented as two separate modes of discourse are not as clear cut as they seem. Students would also begin preparing for the next public presentation, an individual informative speech. This would allow the student to refine the information gathered, to evaluate what information is most relevant, to consider the arrangement of the information in a speech, and to begin considering the role of the audience. Since all the students are now aware of the other individual projects, audience adaptation becomes a factor. Students will be encouraged to point out the similarities and differences between their individual projects, to draw distinctions where they might not have noticed them previously.

By this time, students have become familiar with both the content of their projects and the techniques of critical thinking and the skills of public presentation required of them. The next step is to prepare for the final public presentation, an individual persuasive speech. This final speech has a number of advantages. It requires the students to continue considering the fine and wavering line between information and persuasion; it requires the students to consider even more thoroughly the audience with which they are working. Most importantly, it requires the students to make a commitment to their project. Up to this point, students could at least attempt to maintain an objective viewpoint toward their project. By moving into the persuasive phase, they are required to take a stand on their issue. This is an important step both for the practice of critical thinking and the presentation of the material. Students will have to be prepared to defend their interpretations of the evidence and their conclusions. They will also have to consider more thoroughly the consequences of the proposals they are offering. In short, the persuasive phase of this project requires the students to bring together both the total skills of critical thinking and as much knowledge as possible concerning their individual project.

Critical thinking: A buzzword for educational theorists, educational reformers, and the public in general. Critical thinking was a concern for classical educators. It is a concern for educators today. It is an opportunity for communication instructors to return their pedagogy to the practice of classical educators who prepared students to be functioning citizens of a changing society. The basic communication course, as highlighted in the example above, offers the best location for the teaching of critical thinking, not just critical thinking as a technique devoid of any relation to or consequences of the e result. Critical thinking as taught in the basic communication course would be critical thinking as a true liberal art: The reasoned consideration, discussion, implementation and evaluation of communicatively-derived actions. Communication instructors need to grasp this opportunity to make education effective and active. The match between the need for critical thinking skills for our students and the inclusion of content in our communication courses is simply too good to pass up.

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Video-Modeling and Pre-performance Apprehension: Is Ignorance Bliss?*

Craig Newburger
Michael Hemphill

RATIONALE

A recent report (Gibson, Hanna, and Lechty, 1990) indicated that the public speaking orientation to basic communication course instruction was the choice of 56% of 423 universities surveyed. Gibson et al. reported that the 'hybrid" orientation to basic course instruction appears to have been decreasing over the last five years with the more traditional public speaking emphasis maintaining its position of dominance.

The emphasis on public speaking instruction in the basic communication classroom "challenges the classroom teacher to discover and implement strategies that minimize anxiety associated with in-class public speaking performances" (Beatty, 1988b, p. 208). The experience of giving a speech before an audience for a grade is certainly a novelty for most basic communication course students. McCroskey (1984) addressed that "for most people, giving a speech is a novel experience, not something they do every day" (p. 25). "The uncertainty associated with novel situations presumably pro-

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duces anxiety reactions" (Beatty, 1988a, p.28). Pre-performance concerns (i.e., evaluation, performance, and self-related issues) are regarded as sources of greater anxiety (Daly, Vangelisti, Neel, and Cavanaugh, 1989). Daly and Buss (1984, p. 67) found that uncertainty about the requirements of an upcoming assignment was one cause of anticipatory anxiety.

One strategy for reducing student pre-performance anxiety associated with uncertainty about performance expectations, involves confronting students with successful and unsuccessful public speaking models. Beatty (1988b) found that when confronted with either successful or unsuccessful audio-taped models, successful models were ineffective in reducing anticipatory audience anxiety, while unsuccessful models were found to be potentially helpful for moderate to low apprehensives.

Gibson et al. (1990) indicated that 41% of the schools they surveyed used video-tape in some capacity in basic course instruction. Considering the number of schools employing the use of video-tape it seems useful to determine the potential impact that successful and unsuccessful video model confrontation may have as an anxiety minimization instructional strategy. Previous research has focused on the impact of self-confrontation (self viewing of video-taped performances for the provision of *post-performance* feedback) on speaker anxiety reduction. Self-confrontation has been found to be both *positively and negatively reinforcing* (Gelso, 1974; Roberts, 1972; Dieker, Crane, and Brown, 1971; and McCroskey and Lashbrook, 1970). A recent study indicated that students confrcnted with their video-taped speeches did not experience a reduction in their public speaking apprehension, while students not so confronted did experience a significant reduction (Newburger, Brannon, and Daniel, 1989). The intervening variable that appeared responsible for the anxiety reduction was the experience of giving a speech.

Considering the impact that audio models had on reducing student *pre-performance* anxiety, it seems reasonable that with the addition of a full visual image of a speech presenter, where the audience can both hear and see the speaker, potential anxiety reduction benefits would be increased. This study examines whether using video-modeling as a means of reducing pre-performance uncertainty about the requirements of an upcoming assignment and related performance expectations, will correspondingly reduce pre-performance apprehension.

Hypothesis: *Basic communication course students, when exposed to successful and unsuccessful video models prior to their first in-class speaking performance will experience a greater reduction in pre-performance public speaking anxiety than those students exposed to only a successful or unsuccessful video model, or no video model.*

METHOD AND PROCEDURE

Participants and Video Models

Two hundred and twenty-five students enrolled in the basic communication course served as participants for this study. Subjects were divided into four conditions varied by how the instructions for their first public speaking assignment were given: (l) subjects not confronted with video models, (2) subjects confronted with a successful video model, (3) subjects confronted with an unsuccessful video model, and (4) subjects confronted with both a successful and unsuccessful video model.

The video models featured a speaker successfully or unsuccessfully following seven criteria that students knew would be used to evaluate their in-class speaking performances. The criteria were: (l) make the purpose dear in the introduction, (2) use an appropriate organizational pattern,

(3) include a variety of information during the speech, (4) use repetition to emphasize main points, (5) come to a definite stop, (6) maintain eye contact with the audience, and (7) use gestures and body movement that focus on the message. The speaker used in the production of the video models was a speech communication major with an outstanding public speaking performance record. The student was recorded presenting the same speech twice. The first presentation illustrated a successful meeting of the seven criteria, while the second presentation illustrated deficiencies concerning each criterion.

Measurement and Treatment

The Personal Report of Public Speaking Apprehension (PRPSA) (McCroskey, 1970; McCroskey and Richmond, 1982), which measures public speaking anxiety exclusively, was administered to subjects enrolled in the basic communication course one week prior to their receiving instructions for their first in-class public speaking assignment (Cronbach's Alpha = .946) and one week after their receiving the instructions (Cronbach's Alpha = .942). The second administration of the instrument preceded in-class performances.

RESULTS

Initial Measure of Apprehension

In order to establish that the subjects did not differ in their initial level of public speaking apprehension a one-way ANOVA was computed on the pretest scores across the four conditions. Subjects' initial apprehension scores did not differ significantly across the four conditions (F = .55, df = 3,173, p<.65).

Validity of Video Manipulation

The validity of the manipulation of the video models was established by having subjects, confronted with both successful and unsuccessful models, (condition 4) rate the models on each of the seven evaluation criteria using five-point likert-type items. The successful video received a higher rating (x = 31.93) than the unsuccessful video (x = 15.55) suggesting a valid manipulation (t = 21.62, p < .001).

Change in Apprehension

A one-way ANOVA found a significant change in apprehension scores from pre- to post-test across the four conditions (F = 3.06, df = 3,129, p<.03). A Tukey's post-hoc analysis revealed that the "No Video Model" group differed significantly from the "Successful and Unsuccessful Video Model" group (p<.05). No other post-hoc comparisons were significant, although, subjects' apprehension levels increased steadily from condition one to condition four (see Table 1). A 4x3 ANOVA found no significant interaction between modeling conditions and subject apprehension levels (low, moderate and high apprehensives — [F = 0.87, df = 6,121, p<.51]).

Table 1
Mean Change in Apprehension

Condition	Mean Change in Apprehension
1. No Video Model	0.00*
2. Successful Model	1.06
3. Unsuccessful Model	4.94
4. Successful and Unsuccessful Model	6.84*

*p<.05

DISCUSSION

Although reducing uncertainty associated with assignment requirements and related performance expectations seems a likely source of anxiety minimization, the results did not support that video modeling is a useful instructional strategy for doing such. One explanation could be that the introduction of video modeling formalized the assignment to too great an extent. McCroskey (1984) suggested that "formal situations tend to be associated with highly prescribed appropriate behaviors" (p. 25). Beatty (1988a) added that "it is the narrow range of acceptable behavior which produces anxiety" (p. 29). The introduction of both successful and unsuccessful video models potentially produced anxiety as an outcome of such specific prescription of appropriate behaviors.

The aforementioned specific prescription of acceptable behaviors generated by the contrasting videos may explain the dissimilarity between the findings pertaining to the use of audio versus video modeling. The narrower range of acceptable behavior produced by the video (through the provision of both audio and visual sensory input) versus the audio models may result in heightened student concerns about evaluation, performance, and self-related issues.

The lack of a significant difference between the effects of the successful and unsuccessful video models on altering student pre-performance apprehension is intriguing considering a significant difference between students viewing both video models and students viewing neither was found. The disparity may be attributable to the number of videos the subjects viewed rather than to the quality of the model being portrayed. Future research should consider whether such an effect might dissipate with the viewing of a variety video models.

An additional concern for future research would involve the consideration of the impact of the use of video modeling beyond the first in-class performance. Increased speaker familiarity with the video modeling instructional strategy may make the experience less formal for student speakers, and could potentially influence the reduction of speaker pre-performance anxiety.

Most importantly, future research should consider whether student speech performances qualitatively improve as an outcome of being confronted to the video-modeling instructional strategy, despite the possibility that their anxiety levels may not be correspondingly reduced. The belief that nervousness can actually be used to the advantage of speech presenters is widely held. The findings of this study and the previous self-confrontation research raise a question concerning whether "**ignorance is bliss!**" At this point, the findings suggest that basic course instructors wishing to use videotape for the primary purpose of reducing their students' speech anxiety should consider that the use of this instructional intervention for that specific purpose has, at best, produced mixed results.

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Directing the Basic Communication Course: Eighteen Years Later

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Howard W. Cotrell

In 1976, just two years after assuming the position of basic-course director at Bowling Green State University, Weaver wrote an article entitled, "Directing The Basic Communication Course," for *Communication Education*. Recently, we had the opportunity of examining that article with the perspective of an eighteen-year veteran director.

The motivation for that article was simple. Having assumed the position of director, Weaver looked through the literature of our discipline to find directions, suggestions, and ideas that would help in the new job. He found little written about directing basic courses and began the article acknowledging the problem: "Despite its history as a required course, despite the large numbers of students who are affected by it, and despite the people in the profession who have been associated with it, there is surprisingly little information available in the literature on *directing* the basic communication course" (p. 203).

Eighteen years later, the situation has changed. And eighteen years later, too, the problems a veteran director faces are different as well. As a new director, the important concerns were "the development of course purposes, procedures for organizing the course, and administrative policies" (p. 203). [1]

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[1] Naturally, these concerns do not diminish in importance for the veteran director; they are simply problems that have been clearly, precisely, and, often, conclusively resolved — at least for the most part. They need reconsideration and re-evaluation throughout one's tenure as a basic course director, of course.

In this article, we will focus on problems that face veteran directors. We are not excluding new directors from our focus; however, these are problems directors often see evolving over a period of time. After a brief opening section on basic course literature, we will focus on tradition, motivating students for the long term, and maintaining our own motivation for the course.

BASIC-COURSE LITERATURE

Today, directors of basic courses interested in pursuing information *can* find more of it, however, they are unlikely to find much of an empirical nature.[2] With the exception of the Gibson studies, they are unlikely to find much in the way of systematic research.[3] Also, they are unlikely to find theoretical perspectives to guide research and investigation. They are unlikely to find much in the leading journals of the field. All of this is unfortunate.

Here, we want to extend the discussion begun in 1976. There we explained three major problems facing basic-course directors. In 1989, we looked at five additional problem areas.

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[2] The basic communication course has received more attention in the speech communication literature since 1976. For example, there is a journal available now called *Basic Communication Course Annual* (American Press, 1989, 1990, and 1991) edited by Lawrence W. Hugenberg. Each issue contains articles by prominent and, often, experienced researchers and writers in the area. For information on the background and evolution of the basic course, for example, the reader is referred to the first article in the first issue by Pamela L. Gray, "The Basic Course in Speech Communication: An Historical Perspective" (1989).

[3] Since 1976 there have been three more (for a total of five) studies of the basic course in speech communication (Gibson et al., 1968; Gibson et. al., 1974; Gibson 35. al., 1980; Gibson 35. al., 1985; Gibson et. al., 1990). We know more now about what has happened in the basic course than ever before. For a judgment of how much we know, the reader is referred to the article by William J. Seiler and Drew McGukin, "What We Know about the Basic Course: What Has the Research Told Us?" (1989). Their investigation of basic course literature reveals "that instructors and directors do not have sufficient empirical support on which to design the course" (p. 35).

Now, we want to examine three that veteran directors are likely to experience.

DEALING WITH THE TRADITION

Veteran course directors develop a tradition — the information, beliefs, and customs of a people. In basic courses, our concern is with information, and those beliefs, and customs passed on in the form of stories about a course and an instructor by students. When teaching a rigorous, required, large, basic, communication course over a period of years, the development of a tradition is inevitable.

To discover the tradition on the first day of a new semester, we ask students on a half sheet of paper to anonymously answer the question: "Whether it's fact or fiction, write down something (maybe several things) *you* have heard about this course or about the basic course director. If nothing, write the word 'nothing' on your half sheet."

More interesting than the comments made about what they have heard about the course or its director, are the judgments students are inclined to make based on what they've heard. After students have written what they have heard, we ask them directly, "Okay, what do *you* think about what you've written?" One said, "It's *very* difficult to get an A, even if 150% is put into the class. This is really stupid; this class is required and should be okay to pass." Another said, "I hear the course is full of busy work. I hate it. All my other classes are very time consuming and more important to me than this one." Such half-sheet responses will give directors unexpurgated information on student priorities!

From the comments we have received from students, it appears that they act as though the tradition about a course or its instructor is valid. Seldom, we find, do they pursue it to discover its truth or validity. It is easier not to. If students hear the same story from more than one person, it becomes truth--tradition--and they believe it.

Students' judgments are important. They can lead to attitudes such as, "Why try?," "No matter how hard I try, nothing is likely to happen," "I hate this course so much, and I haven't even taken it yet," or "I'm scared to death." These judgments lead to a strong, negative, beginning attitude. Wilbert McKeachie, in his book *Teaching Tips* (1986), says the most important variable affecting student satisfaction with course and instructor is their expectations. Students who anticipate the course or teacher to be good or bad will likely find it to be that way.

The tradition, especially when it is negative or false, needs to be challenged in some way. We have three methods for dealing with student stories. First, we address them directly. Often we do this during the first class period. For example, on grading, we tell students what the distribution of grades was from the previous semester so that they *know* they can get an "A," and that "A's" and "B's" *are* given.

Second, we provide written responses to the most common concerns. In the workbook for the course, we include specific explanations of grading and evaluating procedures — since these issues loom large in students' thinking. Also, we pose about a dozen of the most common of students' concerns (from the half sheets they submit) as questions, and we address their concerns directly and forthrightly toward the front of the workbook. For example, "Is the grading process fair?," "Can I pass the examinations?," and "Is it just a course full of busywork?," are among the most-often asked questions. These issues, cast in a negative frame, appear frequently on students' final course-evaluation forms until we began addressing them in the workbook.

To deal further with the "busywork" label, we took another important step. For every assignment in the course, we explain to students *why* we are doing it. For example, we tell them *why* an information-acquisition interview or a learning group is important. We tell them *why* research for communication efforts is important, *why* outlines are essential, and *why* we expect *both* command of the theory *and* superiority in performances to receive a high grade in the course. One *or* the other is insufficient.

Our third way of dealing with tradition has to do with availability. We make office hours visible and obvious. We make ourselves available before and after class. We create an open environment for dealing with problems and questions *when* they arise. In this way, we are able to refute negative rumors before they develop and become damaging. In this way, too, students feel as if they have a resource at all times for their help and assistance.

The above methods assist undergraduates in the course. But in large, multi-section courses, directors need to deal with those teaching the course as well. We use three methods for dealing with tradition with teachers as well. First, we make certain that instructors read the information students get in the workbook. Second, we produce a teacher's manual for the instructors who teach the course. In this, we outline all rules, procedures, and methods for handling problems. Also, where necessary, we underscore and explain further the requirements undergraduates read in the workbook.

Finally, we have weekly staff meetings for instructors. In addition to training sessions, these staff meetings allow ongoing contact to deal with problems as they arise. In his article on "Training or Teaching?," Trank (1989) states that "The key element in establishing an effective [training program] is the development of an appropriate atmosphere...." (p. 180). Reviewing student concerns that have been raised previously, before they occur again aids in maintaining an appropriate, supportive, positive atmosphere.

The goal of the basic course director is information management and control. If we can manage and control information, and clearly articulate the intentions and motives of the director and instructors, we make certain the tradition is mostly accurate, or, at the very least, not excessively damaging.

MOTIVATING STUDENTS FOR THE LONG TERM

One weakness of the rapid turnover of basic-course directors (Trank, 1989, p. 169), is that, often, new directors do not have the time to consider larger issues. Focusing on the immediate situation is a matter of survival and daily justification of one 's credibility and position. How to motivate students for the long term is, we think, a larger issue.

We began using imaging visualization several years ago. It was because of the work of Joe Ayres and Theodore S. Hopf (1985) that we introduced a complete lecture on "Imaging" as a way to help control fear, nervousness, and anxiety. By writing to the authors, we received the script they used in their work, and we now introduce our students to that script.

In a second study (1987), Ayres and Hopf suggested that visualization can be as effective as systematic desensitization and rational emotive therapy for helping students reduce communication apprehension in the classroom. In a follow-up study (1990), the same authors showed that after both four months and eight months, those students exposed to visualization reported "significantly lower [communication apprehension] levels . . . than those who were not exposed to visualization" (p. 75). It is systematic studies like these that allow us to assume that some of what we do *can* have long-term effects.

Another technique we have incorporated in the basic course has to do with intervention strategies. Because communication is habitual, and because "past experience rather than specified strategy is frequently imposed" on situations (Beatty, 1989, p. 480), we offer students practical, easy-to-learn and apply, brief strategies for dealing with communication-related experiences. It is training in systematic method that enables students to accurately analyze situations so that they can learn from these experiences (Beatty, p. 480).

We introduce intervention strategies in the first lecture. There, we offer students a ten-step strategy for submitting a completed paper--much like a scenario offered later for developing a speech. (See Figure 1.) We leave students with a five-step strategy for improving perception — showing them first how improved perception results in improved communication. This figure shows how an intervention strategy is presented.

In the second lecture on interpersonal communication, we use several strategies. We offer a five-step sequence for developing a positive (or more positive) self-concept. We discuss a six-step strategy for helping them improve listening. A three-step intervention strategy is offered for improving the clarity of expression. We provide a five-step strategy for successfully coping with anger, and we end the lecture with a three-step strategy for improving self-disclosure.

We have brief strategies that can be used for each of the major topics considered. There is one, for example, on interviewing and one on assertiveness. We offer students one to improve their nonverbal communication as well as one to use as they assess the nonverbal communication of others. We discuss strategies for group membership, group leadership, and time management. We use strategies to help them prepare their speech outlines and to rehearse for their speeches as well.

Our point is that if our goal is to change communication behaviors over the long term, then we must offer students tangible, brief, effective means for doing so. We have found intervention strategies to be a useful tool for this purpose, and the follow-up questions we ask students at the completion of the course indicate that over eighty percent of students make use of at least some of the strategies they are offered during the course.

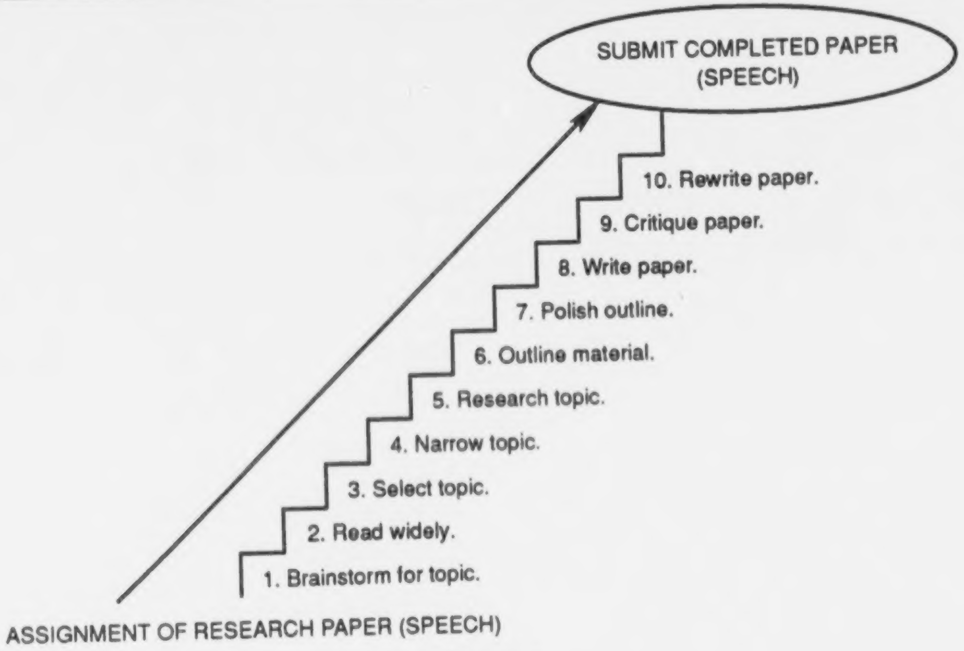
SUBMIT COMPLETED PAPER (SPEECH)
10. Rewrite paper.
9. Critique paper.
8. Write paper.
7. Polish outline.
6. Outline material.
5. Research topic.
4. Narrow topic.
3. Select topic.
2. Read widely.
1. Brainstorm for topic.
ASSIGNMENT OF RESEARCH PAPER (SPEECH)

Figure 1

Self-Concept

1. Think better of yourself.
2. Think better of others.
3. See others as opportunities to build yourself.
4. Accept change in your self.
5. See the values of mistakes.

Listening

1. Be motivated.
2. Know what makes a poor listener.
3. Avoid distractions
4. Don't argue.
5. Listen selectively.
6. Make notes.

Clarity of Expression

1. Picture clearly what you want to express.
2. Clarify and elaborate on what you want to express.
3. Use feedback to help further guide your efforts.

Coping with Anger

1. Be aware of your emotions.
2. Admit your emotions.
3. Investigate your emotions.
4. Report your emotions.
5. Integrate your emotions.

Self-Disclosure

1. Establish an atmosphere of good will (friendly, cheerful, willing, and ready).
2. Reveal trust (confident, reliant, and responsible).
3. Take risk of minimal, low-level self-disclosure.

Figure 2

MAINTAINING OUR OWN MOTIVATION FOR THE COURSE

There are three specific things we have done that help us maintain our motivation for directing the basic speech communication course. We experiment, we write about what we do, and we have learned to cope with criticism. Criticism is inevitable, and it can be destructive.

First, we experiment. We have found that the overall structure of our hybrid course (five weeks each of interpersonal, small-group, and public speaking) works well; thus, the structure and the major activities have remained. We work continuously to refine, hone, and polish exercises, activities, and lectures. We encourage our instructors to do the same. With their reports of results, the observations of an instructional facilitator--an objective observer who sits in on the class and makes suggestions for improvement and change--and our own interest in trying new things, we are able to incorporate minor changes on a continuing basis. This fosters freshness.

Second, what we try, we often write about. There are a number of potential outlets for instructional material.[4]

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[4] If it is quantitative or qualitative in nature *Communication Education* should, of course, be considered first. If it is an exercise or activity that can be written about succinctly, then *The Speech Communication Teacher* is an excellent outlet. The next level of potential outlets, after *Communication Education*, would be the regional journals. Most, however, are unlikely to consider pedagogical material unless it is either quantitative or qualitative in nature, and a quick survey of these journals indicates the paucity of instructional material to be found in our journals. We have found state journals to be excellent outlets, however. And of the best way to discover which state journals need material and to whom to write, basic-course directors should keep their eye on *Spectra* for these announcements. A list of editors of selected journals, newsletters, and magazines is listed in the *Speech Communication Association Directory*. Another excellent outlet for material is the education journals. There are some, like the *Journal of Higher Education*, *American Educational Research Journal*, *Research in Higher Education*, or *Studies in Higher Education* that take primarily quantitative material. But there are numerous other outlets, took, that most people writing instructionally oriented material from a speech communication perspective, may not have discovered. For example, if the material would have applicability at the secondary level as well as the college level, then *Educational Horizons* and *The Clearing House* offer potential outlets. If the material might relate to other disciplines, almost all major disciplines have a journal comparable to *Communication Education*. If it is creative or unusual, then *Innovative Higher Education* or *College Teaching* (formerly *Improving*

Writing about the basic course serves several purposes. It forces us to think through each aspect of what we are doing thoroughly and completely. In doing so, often we make further refinements. Also, it encourages us to place our ideas into a larger perspective. In addition, it gives us the opportunity to share our ideas with a larger audience. Finally, writing allows us to keep fresh through creative expression.

The last way we have for maintaining our own interest in the basic course over the years has involved learning how to deal with criticism. Anyone who has directed a large course and who has asked for open-ended comments from students, knows that students' criticisms can be harsh, severe, even unwarranted and unfair. Of course, if there weren't positive comments, we could not maintain our sanity. Positive comments are assumed; it is the negative ones that have the destructive power.

There are several ways for dealing with negative criticism that we have developed over the years. These include, first, the need to relax and to place it in perspective. It can help, too, to acquire a confidant or someone who can help interpret the criticism or discuss it with you. Another way is to acquire feedback along the way rather than wait until the end of a course. That way, when negative things occur, they can be handled and disposed of at once. When we discover it, we like to deal with it directly. If appropriate also, we like to share criticism with students. It can help in dealing with negative criticism, too, if the evaluation forms are designed to get at exactly the information desired.

College and University Teaching) might be worth considering. If authors don't mind picking up a share of the publication costs, then *Education, College Student Journal,* and *Instructional Psychology* can serve their purposes. Other journals that could be outlets for our material include: Change, *Focus on Learning, Human Learning, Instructional Development, Journal of Teacher Education, Phi Delta Kappan,* and the *Phi Kappa Phi Journal* among others.

To assist in handling negative criticism we constructed a method for categorizing student evaluations in such a way that we can channel-off the negative reactions, label and disregard those considered uninformed or irrelevant, categorize those that seem to represent the majority, and deal appropriately with the constructive ones. We have defined each category and placed them on a continuum from negative to positive. The labels include aggressive /personal, annoyed, perplexed, irrelevant, uninformed, okay, constructive, and overly complimentary. With these categories, instructors have a rational way of dealing with potentially emotional experiences.

SUMMARY

In this article, we focused on problems that face veteran directors. They are problems that can be dealt with once the basic ones concerning the purposes of the course, procedures for organizing the course, and policies for course administration have been resolved.

We all create our own basis for happiness. For us, the basic course serves a valuable, on-going, worthwhile force in students' lives. Whether or not the course or its content becomes old to us, it is still new to students. It can be the most valuable experience for them simply because communication permeates every facet of their lives. Knowing this, we approach it as a survival skill.

By being prepared to face the kinds of questions and problems presented here--how to deal with the tradition, how to motivate students for the long term, and how to maintain our own motivation for the course--the director of the basic course is more likely to *continue* directing the course with enthusiasm and interest. The issues discussed here are important because they touch the very roots of student attitudes, student motivation and learning, and instructor concern and dedication. Indeed, in eighteen years, our interest in the basic course has not changed. What *has* changed is that our commitment has become deeper and more firmly rooted — rooted in issues essential to quality education.

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To Say or Not; To Do or Not — Those Are the Questions: Sexual Harassment and the Basic Course Instructor*

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Unwanted sexual attention is not uncommon at work or colleges and universities (Berry, 1988). Since the term "sexual harassment" was first used in 1974 (McCaghy, 1974), issues surrounding sexual harassment and discrimination are filled with contradictions and ambiguity. The National Advisory Council on Women's Educational Programs defines academic sexual harassment as "the use of authority to emphasize the sexuality or sexual identity of a student in a manner which prevents or impairs that student's full enjoyment of educational benefits, climate or opportunities" (Underwood, 1987, p. 43). According to Underwood (1987), the crux of any sexual harassment claim is that the alleged sexual advance is unwelcome and displayed in clearly recognized physical properties or unwanted verbal exchanges.

Even though some harassment is difficult to identify, the result of any form of harassment is negative. The American Council on Education concludes that the "entire collegiate community suffers when sexual harassment is allowed to pervade the academic atmosphere" (McMillan, 1986b, p. 16). Sexual harassment disrupts the right to an equal education by interfering with the student's psychological, social, and physical well being. In addition, the student's attendance, learning, course choices, grades and, ultimately, economic potential are adversely impacted (Strauss, 1988). Bingham and Burleson (1989) report that sexual harassment is liked to 1) emotional problems such as increased stress, 2) physical manifestations such as headaches, high blood pressure and disease, 3) psychological problems such as decreased levels of confidence and lowered self esteem as well as relationship difficulties, and 4) reduced efficiency in task performance.

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*A recision of a paper presented during the Central States Communication Association meeting, Chicago, Illinois.

Despite its devastating effects, sexual harassment occurs frequently. Research suggests that between 20 and 50 percent of students experience sexual harassment (McMillan, 1991; Strauss, 1988) with women being the likely victim while the harasser tends to be male, older than the victim, of the some ethnic and cultural background as the victim, and in a position of higher authority (Peterson and Massengill, 1982).

No one would suggest harassment should be encouraged or tolerated; however, academic harassment issues are frequently silenced for fear of waking a sleeping giant. Basic course directors should take steps to break the silence and protect their instructors and students. An essential component in establishing an effective leaning environment is to openly discuss sexual harassment as a classroom environment issue with instructors. This paper discusses the legal precedence for academic sexual harassment law and offers a plan for discussing sexual harassment among instructors.

LEGAL PRECEDENCE

For basic course directors to provide effective direction for their instructors, they must be familiar with academic sexual harassment law. The American Association of University professors' *Statement on Professional Ethics* highlights the ethical responsibility faculty members have to avoid exploitation of students for their own advantage and establishes that harassment and intimidation are inconsistent with academic environments and freedom (*Academe*, 1983).

In addition to recognizing the need to balance faculty freedoms with students' rights, litigation has strengthened students' rights. Cases such as *Dixon v. Alabama Board of Education* (294 F. 2d 150 (5th Cir. 1961)) and *Healy v. James* (408 U.S. 169 (1971)) establish that education is more than a "privilege" and recognizes that students are contracting parties having rights under express and implied relationships with the institution (Kaplan, 1985). In short, students are granted expressed rights as citizens which can not be abridged.

Despite the advances beginning in the 1960's, it was not until 1986 with the Supreme Court's decision in *Meritor Savings Bank v. Vinson* (106 S. Ct. 2399 (1986)) that workers and students were granted legal protection against sexual harassment as a form of sexual discrimination. Discrimination is a violation of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and Title IX of the Education Act of 1972. While Title VII clearly makes it unlawful to discriminate against an individual based on several features only one of which is gender, Title IX is the primary legal source governing sex discrimination in academic policies.

In addition to the individual charged with performing the harassing behavior, the institution or employer may be found liable when the institution fails to take action on the harassment allegation or if the institution has not adopted specific procedures to deal with sexual harassment. For example, if an instructor in the basic course is charged with harassment, the basic course director and department chair along with the institution may also be named in the charge. In essence, the claim is made that those in a position of authority should have been able to take appropriate measures to prevent or stop the harassment.

Although frequently named in legal proceedings, institutions are excluded from litigation if a carefully worded and adhered to sexual harassment policy is present. Levels of administrative personnel (basic course directors and department chairs), however, are not dismissed as readily. One of the leading areas of difficulty occurs for the beginning teacher in knowing the boundaries of appropriate and inappropriate remarks and behavior. Thus, a clearly detailed training procedure for the basic course staff members is essential for a successful and non-litigious academic climate. In fact, it is in the best interest of basic course directors to develop their own policy statements or statements publicly adopting their campus's sexual harassment policy as a preemptory move against potential litigation. In some cases, for example, the presence of a clearly articulated and adhered to course procedure may eliminate the basic course director and department from being named in a law suit.

Another possible legal avenue occurs when sexual harassment becomes a criminal offense. Anytime there is unwanted sexual touching the incident is considered sexual assault as well as sexual harassment (Strauss, 1988). Thus, harassment charges may be supplemented with assault charges.

TRAINING FOR THE BASIC COURSE

While few would argue that sexual harassment should be ignored, one of the leading fears in implementing and using a carefully constructed training program is associated with "false claims." Winks (1982) found that several administrators feared that bringing the issue into the open would increase the number of cases when, in fact, ignoring the incidents may escalate the problem (Strauss, 1988). Given that sexual harassment causes psychological and social damage to the victim should be sufficient impetus to override a fear of increased investigation. McMillan (1986a) suggests there is a moral and ethical obligation to develop clear policies that protect students form sexual harassment. In addition to helping the students received the best education, these policies can help shield higher education institutions form potential liabilities. In addition evidence suggests that the teacher (or person) who has taken advantage of a single student will try it again if his or her behavior has been ignored and unpunished (Winks, 1982).

While we may like to think that the basic course instructor tends to be the empathic and caring instructor, this is not universally true. There are cases of ministers or teachers molesting children, coaches forcing students to engage in sexual relations for rides home from tournaments, and other seemingly unthinkable cases of inexcusable behavior. Fitzgerald, et al. (1988) report that as many as 37% of faculty members engage in harassing behaviors. Because we respect people, we assume that sexual harassment is not that significant of a problem. Unfortunately this attitude only serves to keep victimization hidden, treated as a joke, or blamed on the victim (*Scarlet*, 1992). Of concern to the basic course director is the realization that a large number of basic course instructors tend to be more empathic and, as a result, may run a greater risk of having actions or comments misunderstood, inadvertently creating an uncomfortable environment for students. Because of this potential, training and open discussions about how instructors may protect themselves are essential.

Because intention is not an issue in determining whether litigation is justified, instructors must be aware of how their behavior is being perceived by students. The crucial inquiry is whether the alleged harasser treated a member or members of one sex differently from the other sex (Hazzard, 1988). Strauss (1988) explains that the major difficulty with harassment cases is that sexual harassment is in the eye of the beholder. What may be harassment to one may be flirtation or conversation to another.

While several educational issues may be dealt with most effectively by having a carefully prepared procedure for when they occur, sexual harassment issues are best treated with prevention. Because veteran and inexperienced instructors may be unaware of what constitutes harassing behaviors, the burden of multi-sectioned course administrators is enormous. Failure to adequately prepare instructors about sexual harassment issues can result in hazards, not only for the teacher, but for students, administrators, the department and the institution.

All basic course directors and instructors should be familiar with the legal parameter for determining if behavior is harassment. Three questions make up a step analysis which is used to determine whether harassment has occurred. First, what is an objective description of the behavior on question? It is important to focus on specific behaviors and not intentions. The decision to litigate will be made on the behaviors and communication about those behaviors between the victim and alleged harasser. Thus, it is crucial that an objective identification of the behavior is made. For example, a basic course instructor, who frequently stands side-by-side with a student, puts one arm around the shoulder of a student who is expressing how anxious she or he is about delivering a speech. The situation is that the student is disclosing a feeling to the instructor. The specific behavior is the physical act of the teacher putting his arm around the student. What the instructor may intend to communicate by the action is not an issue.

Second, was the behavior welcome. Careful consideration must be given to whether anyone (e.g., basic course director, the instructor, department chair, another instructor, etc.) was told directly that the behavior was unwelcome. It is also important to consider whether the accuser initiates and participates in similar behaviors. If so, the behavior is probably welcome. If the behavior is welcome, the analysis process stops at the stage.

In our example, we would want to know if the student had ever mentioned feeling uncomfortable because of what the instructor did or said. It is also important to consider how the student responds when the instructor touches her or him. If the student pulls away or displays nonverbal mannerisms of discomfort, we would consider the behavior unwelcome. The legal standard is clear in expressing that the alleged victim must make a recognizable and reasonable effort to inform the alleged harasser that the behavior is unwelcome. For purposes of the example, let us assume that the instructor has placed an arm around the student on two previous occasions. On both occasions, the student immediately took a step away. This action would be sufficient to consider the behavior unwelcome.

The final step asks whether the unwelcome behavior is sexual? The standard legal test is to consider whether the described behavior would be considered sexual by any reasonable person. Another way of looking at this question is to ask whether the alleged harasser would engage in the same behavior with any person of either gender in a similar circumstance or whether the described behavior would be engaged in by someone who was not sexually interested in someone. In our example, many of us would think that one arm around a shoulder may be a sign of empathy or warmth but not specifically tied to sexual overtures. In examining the behavior, we would notice that the instructor stood side-to-side and placed an arm around the student's shoulder but did not engage in full body or full frontal body contact. Thus, we would determine that the student probably does not want the behavior to occur but that the behavior is also not sexual in nature. Although we could counsel the instructor to no longer engage in the behavior, the behavior is this instance would not be a case of sexual harassment.

This three-step process should be known and applied by each instructor to monitor his or her own behavior. It can not be overstated that intention has little significance in sexual harassment litigation. The objective analysis of behavior is the determinant of whether harassment has occurred. Figure 1 provides a description and application of the three-step process.

Figure 1
Three Step Analysis for Determining Sexual Harassment

Recognizing subtle sexual harassment is often difficult. As a teacher, you are responsible to know the difference between friendly behavior and sexual harassment. A three-step process can help determine whether sexual harassment may be perceived.

Step One: Concentrate on an objective description of the behavior

It is important to focus on specific behaviors and not be clouded by intentions. The determination for litigation will be made on the behaviors and perception of those behaviors by the person claiming harassment. Thus, it is crucial that an objective identification of the behaviors must first be made.

Step Two: Determine if the behavior is welcome

Careful consideration must be given to whether anyone was told directly that the behavior was unwelcome. This may be the person engaging in the unwelcome behavior, another basic course instructor, the basic course director, department chair, etc.

A second test is whether the person initiates and participates in similar behaviors. If so, the behavior is probably welcome. If the person engages in non-reciprocal behavior, it is unwelcome.

Step Three: Determine if the unwelcome behavior was sexual

The standard legal test is to consider whether the described behavior would be considered sexual by any reasonable person.

A second test asks whether this person would engage in the same behavior with any person of either gender in a similar circumstance.

A third test asks whether the described behavior would be engaged in by one who was not sexually interested in a person.

Example:

Gregg, the graduate assistant, usually touches a student on his or her shoulder while he is helping with a question that has been asked. In the case, Jackie is the student.

To apply the three-step analysis, it is best to separate each step and ask the relevant question indicated above.

Step One: Obtain an objective description of the behavior.

The behavior is that Gregg places his hand on Jackie's shoulder. (Don't focus on the intent, personality, reputation or culture of the person doing the behavior.)

Step Two: Determine if the behavior is unwelcome.

Has Jackie told anyone that Gregg's behavior is unwelcome? Does Jackie initiate similar behavior towards Gregg and does she and Gregg participate equally in the behavior? In other words, if Jackie doesn't withdraw from interaction, draw away from Gregg's touching behavior, or engages in similar behavior, it is probably welcome. (If the answer is "no" to the first question and "yes" to the second question, then the behavior is welcome and the analysis stops at this step.)

Step Three: Determine if the unwelcome behavior is sexual.

Would any reasonable person consider touching a shoulder sexual?

Does Gregg engage in similar behavior with other students of either gender?

Would Gregg touch Jackie's shoulder if he wasn't interested in her? (If the answer is "no," Gregg's behavior is sexual harassment.)

In addition to being familiar with the three-stage analysis, we propose a complete discussion of blatant and subtle harassing situations. The underlying notion of this training is not to call undue attention to the phenomena nor is it to make instructors excessively sensitive to interactions with students.

Rather, the intention should be one of preventing unethical, illegal, and bothersome behaviors. For example, basic course instructors need to understand that closing their office door while meeting with a student may put them at risk. An effective compromise is to leave the door ajar. From a legal perspective, partially closed doors provide and element of defense for the instructor and creates a less isolated environment for students who may be inclined to question instructors' intentions.

In developing an educated approach to decrease the potential for sexual harassment, basic course directors need to know the sexual harassment policies at their institutions. The Equal Opportunity Office, Affirmative Action Office, or Personnel Office would have the institution's policy.

After the director understands the harassment policies of his or her campus, we recommend using a structured discussion during a training session with all basic course instructors. The discussion of sexual harassment issues could adequately be addressed in a two hour session. In addition to the three-step analysis being discussed, the following three areas should be considered: 1) discriminatory language and practices, 2) nonverbal behaviors, and 3) professional and classroom interactions. The objective in discussing these areas is to demonstrate the complexity of sexual harassment and to create an awareness of blatant and subtle forms of harassment. Figure 2 provides a handout that could be used for discussion.

Figure 2
Sexual Harassment Behaviors

Identifying Sexual Harassment

Sexual harassment is best described as unsolicited, non-reciprocal behavior that asserts another's sex role over his or her function as a worker or student. Thus, harassing behavior may range from: verbal comments, touching and other nonverbal forms, to attempted rape and rape.

Examples of nonverbal items

-looking a person up and down (elevator eyes)
-staring a someone
-blocking a person's path
-following a person
-giving personal gifts or performing favors that are not comfortably received (i.e. rides home, etc.)
-displaying sexually suggestive visuals
-making facial expressions such as winks, throwing kisses, etc..
-making sexual gestures with hands or through body movements

Examples of touch behavior

-giving an unwelcome massage
-touching the person's clothing, hair, or body in an unwelcome way
-hugging, kissing, patting or stroking
-touching or rubbing oneself sexually around another person
-standing close or rubbing up against a person

Discriminatory Language and Practices

1) Comments which suggest that one sex is superior to the other, even if made in jest, should be avoided (e.g., "Men are better speakers than women.", "Women belong at home."). Avoid engaging in jokes or making personal opinion statements that are gender related.

2) Comments which reinforce stereotypical roles should be avoided. For example, claims such as "men are more athletic than women" suggests women are inferior and that all men are athletic.

3) Any omission of either gender should be avoided. Pluralize so that you may use "they" rather than "he" or "she." You could also interchange "he" and "she" giving approximately equal time to each gender label.

Nonverbal Behaviors

1) Touching of any sort can be viewed as harassment. While touching may show compassion for students, it is

in your best interest to carefully evaluate how your touch may be received by students.

2) Any gesture which may have obscene connotations constitutes harassment. This includes looks which may be considered leering, looks that draw attention to teacher or student genitalia, or prolonged eye contact with a particular student or students. Eye contact should be balanced among all class members.

Professional Relationships and Interactions

1) You should refrain from socializing with students on an individual and informal basis. This includes attending private parties or engaging in activities which may be misinterpreted.
2) When meeting with students in you office, it is best to leave the door open or ajar. By engaging in discussions behind closed doors, you open yourself to a situation where the student may make claims for which it becomes your word against his or her word. It is best to be aware of potential difficulties and not place yourself in environments where difficulties can emerge.
3) Be sure to call on students of both genders equally in class interactions. Be cognizant of concentrating your attention around the room and equally among make and female students.
4) Refer to all students with the same level of familiarity. It is recommended that you simple call on students by their first names. By using first names, you can avoid the inequality that may be perceived between titles such as "Mr. and Mrs.","Ms.", or "Miss".

LANGUAGE AND PRACTICES

The training session should focus on identifying and eliminating sexually discriminatory language and practices. This includes, but is not limited to, allusions to the superiority of one sex over the other, assigning stereotypical roles to either gender, and omitting references to one gender.

Teachers need to understand that comments such as "it's a man's world" or only using "he" as a referent allude to or directly suggest that men and women are not socially or professionally equal. Instructors should understand that even if delivered "innocently," these comments can degrade women and are grounds for charges (Petersen, 1991). Wood and Lenze (1991) stress that the exclusion of women in instructional content is the "most disturbing form" of gender insensitivity because it "misrepresents women's perspectives and identifies professional, public, and political arenas as predominantly or exclusively male" (p. 17).

While only using "he" to refer to presidents of companies or students who are successful may seem relatively insignificant to some, it may be the basis of harassment litigation because the classroom environment may be perceived as discriminatory or hostile toward women. Some specific and more overt examples of verbal comments which constitute discriminatory practices are: 1) referring to an adult as a girl, doll, hunk, or stud, 2) making sexual comments about a person's body, 3) turning work discussions to sexual topics, 4) making sexual comments or innuendoes, 5) telling sexual jokes or stories, 6) asking about sexual fantasies, preferences, or history, 7) asking personal questions about one's sexual or social life, and 8) repeatedly asking a person, who is not interested, for a date. Wood and Lenze (1991) indicate that the instructor's language, as well as classroom style and the ways in which he or she responds to students, convey information about instructors' values (p. 17).

Similarly, personal references which may reveal sexist or harassing ideologies should be avoided. Sandler (1991) indicates that, "although most people like to believe that they are free from sexism, we all hold many submerged beliefs of which we are usually not aware" (p. 11). This is a key reason why harassment is such a difficult issue. Jaschik (1991) explains that "the gut issue is clear-cut. The nuances may not be." (p. 26). A somewhat extreme, but often heard, example of such a personal reference is "My wife stays home and takes care of the kids — where she belongs." Granted, fine lines must be examined when determining what is fair speech and what is harassment, but when in doubt, a conservative stance is advocated. Therefore, statements which are value-laden or lend themselves to a direct or indirect assessment of gender roles in society should be avoided. Grauerholz (1989) estimates that as many as 60% of students experience harassment in the forms of jokes or off-the-cuff remarks.

An effective way to illustrate some of these comments is through discussion in training sessions (e.g., provide sample cases and ask teachers to identify those they think include harassing attitudes -- see Figure 2). Have basic course instructors individually analyze the situation in Figure 3. We have provided three cases to be analyzed with suggestions of key points that should be identified and what advice the director would likely make to the instructor in the case. Time should also be devoted to addressing what additional information may be important to know in each situation. This portion of training would most effectively be completed after a discussion of the three-step analysis and a thorough discussion of what specific verbal and nonverbal behaviors constitute harassment. By building examples, instructors gain a better understanding of how good intentions can be perceived as bad actions.

Figure 3
Sexual Harassment Analysis

Three situations are provided. For each situation decide if sexual harassment has occurred and what additional information, if any, you would want to know to make your decision.

Case 1:

Bob is a first semester graduate assistant. A student, Kari, returns to his office after class to discuss her test. Bob removes his suit coat. He suggests to Kari that his office is warm and that she may want to remove her cardigan. As he is telling her this, he moves a chair nearer his desk for her. Kari says she is comfortable, doesn't remove her cardigan, and move the chair back from the desk a little. Bob asks, "May I take your sweater?"

Analysis: The specific behavior concerns the removal of the sweater and the position of the chair. We would suspect that a case of harassment could result here because Kari has potentially indicated that she is uncomfortable with Bob's behavior (she doesn't remove her sweater, says she is comfortable, and rearranges the physical environment by pushing the chair further from the desk). By Bob again asking about the removal of her sweater a potentially uncomfortable situation has resulted.

Advice: It is best to let student's adjust their environment around you. For example, Bob could have removed his jacket and said nothing assuming that if Kari was too warm she would remove her sweater. Similarly, Bob could indicate for her to take a seat and suggest that she may move it to the desk if she preferred. In doing so, Bob has indicated caring and connection with the student but allowed the student to adjust the immediate environment for her comfort level.

Case 2:

Scott is a fun loving and energetic teacher. He frequently jokes with students and eats lunch with them. Becki stops by his office prior to going to an interview. Scott tells her that he thinks she looks very professional and he is sure she will get the offer. Becki says nothing in return.

Analysis: There is no indication of sexual harassment. Scott comments of Becki's professional appearance, which is acceptable. If Scott were to have said that she was attractive, we would have concluded that this could have been a harassing situation and needed more information.

Advice: While this situation does not indicate a problem, we may want to remind Scott that professional rela-

tionships with students must be maintained as a reminder against becoming overly engaged or familiar with students.

Case 3:

Peggy, a tenured professor, teaches an interpersonal class. She expects that all class members will participate in class discussions. Steve thinks that Peggy praises comments offered for discussion by female students but generally just asks for other opinions if one of the male students offers items for discussion. As a result, he is reluctant to discuss in class. Peggy also frequently tells her class how unfair academic life can be because only males are administrators at her campus.

Analysis: The specific behavior concerns the atmosphere Peggy establishes in her classroom. This example is similar to cautions provided in Figure 2 suggesting that treatment of one gender differently from another is a form of sexual harassment. This case does not involve a single student. In order to determine if it is indeed a case of harassment, we would need more information: Is Steve's perception felt by other students? How does Peggy interact with students? Was a discussion of gender of the administration relevant to the concepts being taught? How was this comment delivered (although jokes may be considered harassment, we would want to verify the student's representation of the situation), etc.

Advice: Peggy should be advised to work at being aware of how she is interacting with make and female students. We would want to help Peggy understand why students may be perceiving unequal treatment and suggest ways she could balance her comments. Such things as providing no value statements about students' contributions, making sure to ask for comments from male students if none are volunteering, and being careful about making comments which may seem prejudicial to one gender.

Textbooks and instructional materials should also be evaluated to determine if they contain any sexist remarks, omissions, or innuendo. While most of the sexist language is discovered by the publishers, instructional materials are often produced by the home institution or individual faculty members. Instructional materials include lab books, workbooks, departmental materials, instructor handouts, and videotapes. These items should be carefully screened for references which degrade or prefer either gender, promote cultural stereotyping, or depict one gender as being superior to the other.

NONVERBAL BEHAVIORS

Nonverbal behavior is a particularly dangerous way in which sexual harassment processes can occur. From a technical standpoint, for example, any unwanted physical contact between an instructor and student can be interpreted as harassment. If physical contact is sexual touching, it is also a criminal offense. By nature of the actions involved, nonverbal behaviors tend to be more blatant then verbal behaviors. From a legal perspective they are divided into two categories: touch and other nonverbal behaviors. Specific touch behaviors which are harassing are 1) giving and unwelcome massage, 2) touching the person's clothing, hair or body in an unwelcome manner, 3) hugging, kissing, patting or stroking, 4) touching or rubbing oneself sexually around another person, and 5) standing close or brushing up against a person, Other nonverbal behaviors are things such as 1) obscene gestures, 2) prolonged eye contact, 3) sexual suggestion, 4) blocking a person's path, 5) giving personal gifts or performing favors that are not comfortably received (i.e. rides home), 6) displaying sexually suggestive visuals, and 7) making facial expressions such as winks.

Sandler (1991) also suggested that the instructor's clothing may be a criterion by which harassing behavior may occur. Clearly clothing and accessories communicate. The implication here is for teacher to monitor their dress so that sexual innuendo is not suggested.

PROFESSIONAL AND CLASSROOM INTERACTIONS

Professional relationships between students and teachers are an issue which must be clarified to help prevent harassment. Particular concerns rest with behaviors such as personal and social involvement between instructors and students to more subtle issues such as leaving the office door open during student conferences. Beyond the routine admonition that teachers need to maintain a professional relationship with students, casual references in or out of the classroom may be grounds for charges.

Matters of equality and fairness also need to be emphasized in training. This means that an "ideal" balance of attention, divided among male and female students, should be achieved. Hall and Sandler (1982) found that male teachers call on male students more than they do female students. This finding supports the necessity of maintaining balanced interactions with students of both genders.

Another application of equal treatment lies in the titles used to address students. Basic course instructors need to be cognizant of any propensity to show favoritism or unbalanced treatment of either gender. For example, an instructor who consistently addresses male students using the prefix "Mister" while addressing female students by their first name has established a preference or hierarchy by how the students are addressed differently according to gender lines. Even though the instructor may not intend any difference in using such titles, students may feel that preferences or status differences are being created. It is simply better to address all students similarly by their first name. Even using the title "Mr." for males creates a problem for how to address female students. "Ms.", "Miss", or "Mrs." are not universally accepted as preferred references by all women nor are they socially perceived as equal to "Mr."

CONCLUSIONS

It is clear that sexual harassment is prevalent in classrooms and presents negative consequences. Legal precedence establishes academic environments as unique entities. When harassment occurs in the basic communication course, the alleged harasser, basic course director, department and institution are all affected and may all be named in legal action. Because of the enormous difficulties that arise when harassment occurs, prevention is paramount. Discussion addressing sexual harassment as part of the basic course training program is an excellent preventive device.

The resources of the department and the time available is certainly a concern when considering training for basic course instructors. Given the enormity of sexual harassment, however, adequate time and discussion must occur. We advocate a two hour session devoted to sexual harassment issues. Information provided in this essay could be an effective vehicle to engage discussions. It is important that the training involve more than a lecture or someone speaking on the issue. Only through careful thought and application will the basic course instructor truly grasp the significance of the nuances which surround sexual harassment.

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Teaching Public Speaking as Composition

Michael Leff

This article is intended as a call for reform, but I must begin by confessing some uncertainty about what it is that I am attempting to reform. The fact is that I do not have a secure understanding about the state of the art as it is now practiced in teaching public speech. I have not made a survey of the methods now used in classroom instruction, nor undertaken a systematic study of the textbooks, and I have not reviewed the current scholarly literature. What I have to say is based upon personal experience and depends on anecdotes, hunches, and analogies. Thus, I fear that my view of the current situation may be badly distorted, but if it is, this seems the right place to expose the error and stand ready for correction. I can only ask those more familiar with this territory to bear with my speculations long enough to consider the argument I want to develop.

Last year, after an absence of almost twenty years from the basic course, I became the director of the fundamentals public speaking course at Northwestern. My first step, obviously, was to find out what the instructors were doing and to catch up. To my surprise, however, it did not seem that I needed to catch up. The syllabi for the course looked very much as they did in 1970, and the instructors (all of them graduate students) adhered to the same objectives and methods that were in vogue two decades ago. The textbook was more attractive in format and better written than the ones I had used, but it included almost the same set of topics arranged in more-or-less the same order. A quick glance through a few other currently popular texts indicated that this book was no exception.

Now, everyone knows that teaching is a conservative business and that things chance rather slowly at the base of the curriculum. Nevertheless, I was still greatly puzzled by the conservatism displayed in this area. During the past two decades, the academic study of rhetoric has passed through profound and revolutionary changes, and both theory and criticism now appear much different than they once were. In fact, what graduate students in rhetoric are now taught at the top of curriculum bears only a generic resemblance to what I was taught as a graduate student. Yet, they still teach public speaking very much as I taught it. Why?

This question becomes all the more puzzling when we look next door and consider recent developments in English Departments. In that precinct, the rhetorical revolution has made a firm imprint on the basic composition course. The venerable "product" model and its accompanying typology of assignments (e.g. exposition, narration, argument) have receded and seem on the way to extinction. Attention has shifted to the process of composition; students are no longer expected to make a finished product without some help in understanding the process of writing, and assignments have changed accordingly. New approaches to instruction have evolved: Small group conferences are frequently used so that students can critique their own work as an assignment proceeds; classes are taught in a "studio" or "work-shop" environment, where the instructor plays a much less dominant role; and perhaps most dramatically, the writing across the curriculum movement has signaled a fundamental change in attitude about how students can best develop composition skills. At the same time, a variety of different rhetorical theories — expressionist, cognitive, social-epistemic, and others — compete for allegiance, and differing theoretical positions really do have an impact on teaching practices. And the ideological arguments that appear in the scholarly literature have assumed some importance in thinking about pedagogy. In short, the English Composition course reflects what is happening in the scholarship, and it presents itself as a scene of intense activity, heated controversy, and constant experimentation. So far as I can tell, nothing of the sort has happened in our domain. How can we account for this difference?

In a recent issue of *College Composition and Communication*, I found an article that suggests at least a partial answer to this question. The article, "Identifying and Teaching Rhetorical Plans for Arrangement" by Joanne M. Podis and Leonard A. Podis (1990), obviously does not concern the issue I have just raised. Nevertheless, the stance of its authors reveals something that, if it is not typical, is at least frequent in the composition journals, and the contrast with our literature offers some interesting grounds for speculation.

Podis and Podis want to improve the teaching of arrangement by bringing into focus patterns and expectations that teachers invoke but often do not consciously recognize. For this purpose, they refer to cognitive theory, which offers a way to identify these patterns and raise them to conscious attention. Significantly, however, they use this theory as a general guide for their inquiry rather than as a source for specific principles. The patterns they discover arise from their direct experience in the classroom. That is, they reflect about the draft papers students have submitted, about their reactions to these drafts, and about the results of the re-writing process. As a result of this self-reflection, they identify eight "plans" for textual organization (e.g. the obvious should precede the remarkable). They make no claim that this taxonomy is absolute or exhaustive, and they are mindful that it proceeds from assumptions built into cognitive theory, which places stress on clarity and ease of understanding. Other theoretical interests, they acknowledge, lead to different attitudes about the value of clarity. Consequently, the essay concludes with a consideration of the limitations of their approach and a thoughtful argument about how their findings might prove useful for those who hold a different theoretical position.

From my perspective, the most striking feature of the article is the implicit but clear sense of the subject being studied. The article is *about* composition, specifically about the teaching of composition in a basic course. The rhetoric of the essay itself hinges on the assumption that the audience has a common fund of experience based in the teaching of composition, and the authors also assume that this experience is more fundamental, more basic to the constitution of the audience, than theories that can be applied to or abstracted from practice. Thus, as they blend theory into practice, the authors can pursue a line of theoretical inquiry without losing sight of the primary subject, and they can sustain an appropriate balance in assessing the practical advantages and limitations of their own perspective.

My impression is that rhetoricians who teach public speaking lack this kind generative connection between theory and practice. We do not seem able to invoke an implicit but vital understanding of our own practice as teachers of a practical art. For this reason, among others, our direct experience as in the classroom fades indistinctly into the background, and the pedagogical interest tends to center on theories and methods per se. Typically, we consider how abstract methods or theories might determine our course objectives, or how we might exploit research findings developed elsewhere for some specific application, or how we might discover methods for assessing our effectiveness as teachers. In other words, our scholarship informs our teaching, insofar as it does, from the outside in, and the teaching experience itself seems theoretically uninteresting. The result is that the fit between theory and practice in teaching becomes rather awkward and artificial.

If this speculation has some merit, we might be able to explain *what* has made our pedagogy theoretically inert — namely a lack of commitment to the subject we teach and a corresponding failure to make an organic connection between this subject and our scholarship. Nevertheless, we still would not have answered my original question, which had to do with *why* our pedagogy seems so far removed from our rhetorical scholarship.

Pursuing the comparison and contrast with rhetoricians in English Departments, I would argue that institutional politics are crucially important. For rhetoricians in Communication Departments, the public speaking course rests securely at the base of the curriculum, and it is something that mature scholars escape as they climb the rungs of the career ladder. In our domain, teaching composition or performance, at least in the research institutions, is a task for graduate students and lecturers. Senior faculty teach cultural rhetoric, critical theory, nineteenth-century public address, or some other "content" subject. On the other hand, rhetoricians in English Departments normally operate within a more restricted environment, since, insofar as they are actually rhetoricians and not literary scholars going through a probationary ritual, they must retain connection with the teaching of composition and cannot flee the subject. Consequently mature, theoretically sophisticated scholars continue to teach composition, or at any rate, teach advanced courses that are supposed to have a more-or-less direct bearing on the teaching of composition.

If we are inclined to make invidious comparisons (and academics always are), we might interpret this difference as an advantage to rhetoricians on our side of the fence. After all, the rhetorician in English seems confined, chained to the basics. Yet, this same image might also suggest a less comforting assessment. Lacking connection through teaching the basics, we are not so well linked together in community, and given the amorphous nature of rhetoric as a subject, our scholarship runs the risk of scattering, specializing, and losing the texture of shared experience. That this hazard is actual and not lust potential becomes clear when we move away from the public speaking course and consider areas that fall within the central focus of rhetorical scholarship.

In the case of rhetorical criticism, for example, the tenuous connection between theory and practice is as much apparent as it is in our pedagogy. Moreover, efforts to remedy this problem (my own included) have been frustrated because of the sprawl of rhetorical practice and the strong temptation to turn from the study of practice toward rather abstract theory. That is, in the absence of a reasonably well defined domain for practice, critics tend to speculate about practice in theoretical terms rather than to focus upon specific instances. Moreover, since the theories and ideologies that enter into such speculation are almost boundless, critics do not often share common ground even in respect to their experience as critics. Theory, thus, becomes detached from grounded arguments about the interpretation of practice. In a recent essay, Thomas Benson indicates a manifestation of this problem in terms of an odd asymmetry that exists in our literature. Rhetorical theorists, Benson observes, "typically do not draw heavily upon historical and critical studies. It is more common for theorists to cite other theorists.... Historians and critics are more likely to cite theory or attempt to contribute to theory than theorists are likely to draw on history and criticism" (1989, p. 16).

In other words, the study of practice generated in our own literature seems to have little influence on our theoretical work. This situation raises a substantial problem in respect to the fit between theory and practice, but perhaps more important, it also encourages a dispersion of effort. Since the study of practice does not build on itself, the range of the scholarship remains unlimited, and individual studies become additive rather than cumulative. Unfortunately, we seem to lack the common experience working on the same subjects that seems required for a disciplinary consciousness.

My point, then, is that by concentrating on public speaking as composition, we might serve two purposes at once. We might be able to generate better, more innovative, and more theoretically interesting approaches to teaching the basic course. At the same time, if we viewed the public speaking class as an important arena of rhetorical practice, and not just as a burden imposed upon us, we might discover a shared referent that could help focus and invigorate rhetorical scholarship as a communal enterprise. A serious interest in public speaking as rhetorical composition might provide precisely what we now lack — a practical ground for blending theory and practice — since it offers us a common locus for experiencing the interplay between theory and practice.

I realize that this is not a modest proposal and that it runs counter to a well established tradition that segregates "skills courses" from what are normally conceived as our higher and more "scholarly" concerns. Thus, to accept it would require some fundamental changes in our thinking and our behavior. We would have to stop thinking of the public speaking course as nothing more than a "service" enterprise; we would have to conceive it as something integral to our mission as teachers and scholars; we would have to engage senior faculty in the course and challenge them to connect what they know about rhetoric to the fundamentals of practice; and we would have to be willing to open the course to new ideas and to experiments that might alter its familiar and comfortable structure. These changes will not be easy to effect, and perhaps the task is impossible. Yet, one of the functions of the rhetorician is to turn the impossible into a possibility, and I hope that this essay is a step in just that direction.

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Be Relevant, Careful, and Appropriate: Scary Advice on the Use of Humor to the Novice Public Speaker

Judythe A. Isserlis

Humor is considered to be "as universal as language. It is found in the gentle teasing of a friend, in subtle quips understandable to a few," and in "bitter satire." Humor includes delicate forms of wit and much broader bits of satire. Even in the most serious of times, humor and laughter can ease the tension (Mudd & Sillars, 1991, p. 369). "It creates a bond of friendship between you and the listeners [in a public speaking context], and it puts them into a receptive, trusting mood" (Gregory, 1990, p. 335). It is for this reason that humor is an important factor in public speaking. It has the power to influence the audience by amplifying and clarifying a point, and by enhancing the image of the speaker. But as DeVito (1990) states, "humor is an important element in some public speeches, [but] it is not a necessary element, nor is it always desirable" (p. 367).

Because the subject of humor is so pervasive in all communication, it would appear logical that humor would be treated in texts dealing with the principles and practices of public speaking. The use of content analyses of communication texts to examine a specific topic in communication is not new. A recent study (Pelias, 1989), which was conducted on 25 contemporary public speaking texts with a specific focus on the treatment of communication apprehension, found several differences and a number of commonalties among the texts studied. The author concluded that "relatively little attention

[was] given to CA in many of the basic public speaking textbooks" (p. 49). A prior study (Bryant, Gula, & Zillmann, 1980) was specifically concerned with the use of humor in communication textbooks. The researchers were concerned, however, with humorous segments in the texts themselves, and did not analyze the advice given to students on the use of humor. To date, there are no studies which systematically examine the treatment of humor in contemporary public speaking texts. As the target audience for this type of text is typically the student speaker, it would seem logical that we examine the information regarding humor in public speaking to determine the utility of this information.

METHOD

Twenty-seven textbooks were chosen for inclusion in this study. All are recent editions of popular texts (see Table 1). These texts had been advertised by their publishers in the 1987-1991 annual programs for the Speech Communication Association conferences of those years. Some represented later editions of popular favorites, such as *Principles and Types of Speech Communication* by Gronbeck, McKerrow, Ehninger, & Monroe (1990) and *Public Speaking: Content and Communication,* by Mudd and Sillars (1991), while others were texts in their first edition, such as *Public Speaking in a Free Society* by Tedford (1991) and Andrews' (1987) *Public Speaking: Principles into Practice*. Categories of information concerning humor were coded to represent the various treatments of humor which appeared in the 27 texts. Although there were discussions of varying length, treatment, and topic in the sample, the categories did appear to be finite.

Table 1
List of Textbooks Examined

1. Andrews, J. (1987). *Public speaking: Principles into Practice.*
2. Ayres, J., & Miller, J. (1990). *Effective public speaking* (3rd ed.)
3. Barrett, H. (1987). *Practical use of speech communication.*
4. Beebe, S.A., & Beebe, S.J. (1991). *Public speaking: An audience-centered approach.*
5. Capp, G.R., Capp, C.C., & Capp, R.C. (1990). *Basic oral communication* (5th ed.).
6. Carlile, C.S., & Daniel, A.V. (1991). *Project text for public speaking* (6th ed.).
7. DeVito, J.A. (1990). *The elements of public speaking* (4th ed.).
8. Fletcher, L. (1990). How to design and deliver a speech (4th ed.).
9. Gregory, H. (1990). *Public speaking for college and career* (2nd ed.).
10. Gronbeck, B.E., McKerrow, R.E., Ehninger, D., & Monroe, E. (1990). *Principles and types of speech communication* (11th ed.).
11. Hanna, M.S., & Gibson, J.W. (1989). *Public speaking for personal success* (2nd ed.).
12. Hunt, G. (1987). *Public speaking* (2nd ed.).
13. Lucas, S.E. (1989). *The art of public speaking* (3rd ed.).
14. Metcalfe, S. (1991). *Building a speech.*
15. Mudd, C.S., & Sillars, M.O. (1991). *Public speaking: Content and communication* (6th ed.).
16. Nelson, P.E., & Pearson, J.C. (1990). *Confidence in public speaking.* (4th ed.).
17. Osborn, M., & Osborn, S. (1988). *Public speaking.*
18. Powers, J.H. (1987). *Public speaking: The lively art.*
19. Prentice, D., & Payne, J. (1989). *Public speaking today!*
20. Ross, R.S. (1989). *The speech making system* (8th ed.).

21. Samovar, L.A., & mills, J. (1989). *Oral communication: Message and response* (7th ed.).
22. Sprague, J., & Stuart, D. (1988). *The speaker's handbook* (2nd ed.).
23. Tedford, T.C. (1991). *Public speaking in a free society.*
24. Verdeber, R. (1988). *The challenge of effective speaking* (7th ed.).
25. Whitman, R.F., & Foster, T.J. (1987). *Speaking in public* (2nd ed.).
26. Wilson, J.F., Arnold, C.C., & Wertheimer, M.M. (1990). *Public speaking as a liberal art* (6th ed.).
27. Wood, J. (1988). *Speaking effectively.*

RESULTS

In examining the 27 texts specifically for their treatment of humor, it appeared that 11 categories emerged:

1. Theories of humor
2. Rationale for the use of humor
3. Guidelines for the use of humor
4. Sources of humor
5. Humor as a factor of attention
6. Specific techniques to employ
7. Injunctions on the use of humor
8. Who should use humor
9. The use of self-deprecating humor
10. How to deliver the humor
11. Humorous speaking.

Only three texts (Andrews, 1987; Barrett, 1987; Lucas, 1989) contained no reference to humor in any area of speech preparation. All other texts contained at least one mention of humor, and the levels of analysis ranged from brief descriptions of several paragraphs to entire sections or chapters. The following texts referred to humor without giving specific examples: Verdeber (1988), DeVito (1991), Powers (1987). All other texts in the sample provided examples for the concepts of humor.

THEORIES OF HUMOR

Only one text, *Speaking in Public* by Whitman and Foster (1987) included a section on the theories of humor. The authors note that "humanity has long enjoyed the pleasurable state produced by humor and for an almost equally long time has attempted to state reasons why certain circumstances are humorous" (p. 320). The seven categories "offered" by Goldstein and McGhee (cited in Whitman & Foster, 1987) in *The Psychology of Humor* provide the basis for this discussion of humor. This treatment contained descriptions of superiority, biological, incongruity, release and relief theories, surprise, ambivalence, and configuration theories (pp. 320-323).

RATIONALE FOR THE USE OF HUMOR IN PUBLIC SPEAKING

Most texts attempt to explain the *rationale* for the use of humor in speeches; these explanations serve to persuade the novice speaker that the use of humor could accomplish important goals for the speaker both relating to speaker credibility and to the audience's perception of the content. Ayres and Miller (1990) suggest that audiences in general enjoy wit and humor (p. 69). Powers (1987) notes that "humor is especially effective in reducing barriers between a speaker and an audience and in binding the individual listeners together into a collective audience" (p. 136). Beebe and Beebe (1991) assert that the use of humor in introductions can create goodwill (p. 206). Gronbeck et al. (1990), Hunt (1987), Metcalfe (1991), and Osborn and Osborn (1988) state that the use of humor by a speaker successfully creates rapport with the audience.

Sprague and Stuart (1988), citing Gruner, suggest that "an infusion of humor into any speech can break tension, [also proposed by Carlile & Daniel, 1991] deflate opponents, enhance the speaker's image [a point also made by Verdeber, 1988; Ross, 1989; and Tedford, 1991] and make points memorable" (p. 286). Indeed, humor can even provide "a *relaxation* [italics mine] from tension and decrease listener fatigue" (Ayres & Miller, 1990, p. 69). Metcalf (1991) states that humor can establish a "positive climate" for the speaker and encourage audience receptivity, as "a humorous anecdote can frequently make a point more successfully than a long theoretical statement" (p. 144). He also notes that a humorous conclusion can leave the audience in a positive frame of mind, both toward the subject and the speaker (a point also made by Verdeber [1988]). Carlile and Daniel (1991) suggest, as do a number of authors (Beebe & Beebe, 1991; Gronbeck et al., 1990; Hanna & Gibson, 1989) that humor serves as an attention-getting technique, for "when people laugh, they attend to the source that provoked the laughter" (p. 132). The use of humor also increases understanding for the listeners (Nelson & Pearson, 1990; Samovar & Mills, 1989) and functions as supporting material, "helping the speaker to emphasize a point, crystallize an idea, or rebut an opposing argument" (DeVito, 1990, p. 367). Ross (1989) makes the point that humor increases the retention of ideas in the listeners (p. 249). Osborn and Osborn (1988) recommend the use of humor in public speaking as "humor teaches all of us not to take things too seriously" (p. 419). Prentice and Payne (1989) state that humor can even assist in setting a serious tone to the speech, as when speakers contrast a serious message with "the lightness of a joke" (p. 286). For Fletcher (1990), humor, even in serious speeches, "makes the speaker sound more human, and thereby helps listeners believe and accept the speaker's ideas" (p. 359).

Some authors are careful to note, however, that the use of humor is not always appropriate to the speech situation

(DeVito, 1990; Gregory, 1990; Hanna & Gibson, 1989; Mudd & Sillars, 1991) and the subject (Beebe & Beebe, 1991).

GUIDELINES FOR THE USE OF HUMOR IN PUBLIC SPEAKING

In addition to the rationale for utilizing humor in a speech, a second category of advice regarding humor appears to be how to include humor in a speech. This advice ranges from the theoretical and abstract to the technical. Most of the authors recommend that humor be appropriate (DeVito, 1990, p, 368; Hanna & Gibson, 1989, p. 162; Sprague & Stuart, 1988), relevant to the topic (DeVito, 1990, p. 368; Fletcher, 1990, p. 366; Metcalfe, 1991, p. 144; Tedford, 1991, p. 210; Shitman & Foster, 1987, p. 325), brief, and spontaneous (DeVito, 1990, p. 368). Tastefulness is another criterion for the effective use of humor, and is advocated by DeVito (1990), Ayres and Miller (1990), Gronbeck et al. (1990), and Prentice and Payne (1990). (The issue of tastefulness will be discussed more fully later in this essay.) Capp, Capp, & Capp (1990) suggest that "the humor should be original, fresh, and entertaining" (p. 124).

SOURCES OF HUMOR

A number of the texts refer to the general categories of humor which can serve as resources for speakers. Hanna and Gibson (1989) refer to these categories as: (a) exaggeration, (b) surprise, (c) absurd, (d) human problems, and (e) playful ridicule (p. 163). The principal sources of humor, as viewed by Carlile and Daniel (1991), are seen as (a) overstatement or exaggeration, (b) understatement, (c) puns or plays on words, (d) irony and sarcasm, (e) unexpected twists, (f) anecdotes, (g) malapropisms, and (h) quips or wit (pp. 133-136). Sprague and Stuart (1988) provide extensive treatment of what they call "the devices of humor," namely, (a) exaggeration, (b) understatement, (c) irony, (d) anticlimax, and (e) word play (pp. 287-289), with similar categories noted by Ayres and Miller (1990): understatement, puns or plays on words, irony, unexpected twists, and incongruity (pp. 311-312) and by Mudd and Sillars (1991) who add the component of "burlesque" to the familiar categories of overstatement, understatement, irony, unexpected turns, and plays on words (pp. 370-371). It should be noted that the treatments for these categories or sources of humor vary from a brief statement of the categories (Capp et al., 1990; Hanna & Gibson, 1989; Wilson, Arnold, & Wertheimer, 1990) to several pages of descriptions and examples (Carlile & Daniel, 1991; Mudd & Sillars, 1991; Prentice & Payne, 1989; Sprague & Stuart, 1988). Again, a brief treatment of the sources of humor is given by Wilson et al. (1990) in the identification of humor as a "factor of attention." Humor here is identified as the "introduction of exaggeration, incongruity, irony, word play, unexpected turns of thought or phrase" (p. 96).

HUMOR AS A FACTOR OF ATTENTION

As mentioned previously, several authors include a discussion of humor in the context of "other factors of attention." Wilson et al. (1990) provide nine factors of attention of which humor is the last, and note that the first eight (including vitality, specificity, and novelty) are always appropriate, while humor may sometimes be out of place (pp. 94-96). A similar but somewhat shorter treatment is included by Gronbeck et al. (1990), Ross (1989), and Ayres and Miller (1990).

SPECIFIC TECHNIQUES TO EMPLOY

In order to accomplish the objectives for the use of humor, a number of specific suggestions are given. Powers (1987) refers to the *humorous story* which may be made up for the occasion or based on fact; its punch line attempts to make the audience laugh (p. 136). Several authors also recommend that the speaker use other kinds of humor besides jokes (Gregory, 1990; Nelson & Pearson, 1990). The humor does not have to be hilarious, merely an "attractive" method to bring the information to the audience (Nelson & Pearson, 1990, p. 263). Wood (1988) notes that "much effective humor occurs spontaneously in the speaking situation" (p. 113) which suggests that the humor can effectively be generated by the speaker's careful analysis of the speaking context.

In stressing the importance of creativity, Sprague and Stuart (1988) assert that it is important to have "the ability to spot a potentially humorous idea in your speech and to develop it into a genuinely funny moment" (p. 286). Osborn and Osborn (1988) refer to the speaker's creating "inside humor" — the humor which arises out of the immediate situation (p. 420). DeVito (1990) advises that "one obvious way to secure humorous materials is to create it yourself out of your own experiences and your observations of others and of the world" (also suggested by Sprague & Stuart, 1988) although the humorous materials of others can also be adapted (pp. 367-368). Sarcasm was also mentioned by one text as a useful humorous technique (Samovar & Mills, 1989, p. 168). Fletcher (1990) provides some suggestions for adapting set materials explaining such techniques as changing the "peg" of the joke (the subject, the character, or the setting) and building "bridges" (providing a transition from the joke to the topic at hand and vice versa) (pp. 362-363). Metcalfe (1991) suggests the use of anecdotes, even if the speaker does not feel entirely comfortable with humor (p. 145). Gregory (1990) specifically recommends that the novice speaker not use jokes, as jokes do not always tie in well with the rest of the speech, are difficult to tell, and may be familiar to the audience. He does recommend, however, the use of a "mildly amusing story, quotation or observation" (p. 335). The ability to tell the joke or story well is seen as very important (Gronbeck et al., 1990), but it is still possible to relax the audience with a joke or witticism that fails to get the expected response (Wood, 1988, p. 113). Other specific techniques advocated are the use of *confusion and an unexpected twist of language* (Hanna & Gibson, 1989, pp. 162-163).

INJUNCTIONS ON THE USE OF HUMOR

Along with the recommendations for the specific techniques employed to create humor, nearly all the texts contained general and specific items to avoid. In general, most of the texts cautioned speakers to avoid "bad taste" and specifically off-color stories (Ayers & Miller, 1990; DeVito, 1990; Gronbeck et al., 1990; Prentice & Payne, 1989; Ross, 1989; Wood, 1988), irrelevance (Gronbeck et al., 1990; Metcalfe, 1991; Mudd & Sillars, 1991), humor that might be offensive to any audience member (Gregory, 1990; Prentice & Payne, 1989), private jokes (Prentice & Payne, 1989), impersonal and stale humor (Capp et al., 1990), and humor used as a substitute for legitimate argument (Samovar & Mills, 1989). Most of the texts do state that the use of humor contains some risks, but several do caution that the speaker must prepare for either a positive or a negative response by not going off the track (Metcalfe, 1991, p. 144).

WHO SHOULD USE HUMOR IN A SPEECH

This advice leads to the issue of *who* can successfully use humor in a speech. The most extensive treatment of this subject was by Sprague and Stuart (1988) who declare that "everyone is funny. There are differences in terms of frequency, intensity, subtlety, and point of view," but hearty laughs are not the only measure of the humor's effectiveness. The authors then provide several paragraphs demonstrating how speakers can examine their own humor (p. 24b). Wood (1988) notes that "more than most skills in public speaking, the ability to use humor is probably a natural talent that people have in varying degrees," a point reinforced by DeVito (1990). For speakers without a great deal of talent, a "set" joke is not often effective, but others types of humor may be utilized successfully (p. 113). Mudd and Sillars (1991) imply that an aptitude for humor is required in order to use it, while most other authors take the point of view that humor can be utilized by most speakers (Gronbeck et al., 1990; Hanna & Gibson, 1989; Metcalfe, 1991; Verdeber, 1988). Verdeber also makes the point that to be "riotously funny" is not necessary and can even be detrimental (p. 165).

ON THE USE OF SELF-DEPRECATING HUMOR

A number of the texts identify self-deprecation as a particularly effective humorous technique (Gregory, 1990; Hanna & Gibson, 1989; Hunt, 1987; Mudd & Sillars, 1991; Whitman & Foster, 1987; Wood, 1988) although the research findings concerning its effectiveness have been mixed (Ross, 1989, p. 250). Fletcher (1990) seems to disagree, as he recommends that the speaker not put down his or her own jokes or use self-deprecating humor. He explains that comedians such as Joan Rivers and Rodney Dangerfield who use self-deprecating humor are able to do so because they have "built their images over years of performing" (p. 365).

HOW TO DELIVER THE HUMOR

There appears to be another facet of humor that gets mixed reviews from several authors. Gregory (1990) advocates delivering the humorous line or joke without showing the audience that the speaker expects laughter (p. 336). Fletcher (1990), on the other hand, advises the speaker to "let your audience know you expect them to laugh" or the humorous intention will be lost (p. 364). Ayres and Miller (1990) seem to disagree by stating that a joke should not be previewed as hilarious in case it is not perceived so by the audience (p. 313). In a discussion concerning speeches to entertain, Prentice and Payne (1989) suggest that the speaker be sure to "pause for laughs" as comic timing is crucial to the proper reception of the humor (p. 395). Whitman and Foster (1987) advise the speaker to exercise control by not laughing until the audience does (p. 325). It should be noted, however, that most of the other authors do not include such *practical* suggestions in their discussions of humor.

HUMOROUS SPEAKING

A number of the texts focus their treatments of humor on particular types of speeches. Prentice and Payne (1989) devote most of their discussion of humor to an analysis of the "speech to entertain" and a category of the speech to entertain known as "the humorous speech." Hunt (1987) notes that four principles which guide speeches to entertain are: (a) being relevant, (b) keeping a sense of humor, (c) staying in a good mood, and (d) keeping the speech good-natured to ensure that no one in the audience will be offended (pp. 308-309). Metcalfe (1991) explains the after-dinner speech and toast in an entire chapter devoted to special occasion speeches. He notes that the after-dinner speech should contain only one theme in order not to appear to be a series of disconnected jokes and stories (p. 329), and urges after-dinner speakers to adopt their own style and to learn smooth delivery and timing. He then defines what is meant by a "toast" and provides some practical suggestions (p. 330).

Another rather extensive treatment of humorous speeches is provided by Carlile and Daniel (1991) in a chapter which explains the purpose of these speeches, as well as providing sample topics and suggestions for preparation. Creativity and originality are recommended, as well as the incorporation of all the sources of humor (pp. 139-140). Mudd and Sillars (1991) also include a brief description of the speech to entertain in a chapter entitled "Speaking on Special Occasions." Fletcherin (1990) includes an entire chapter "Entertaining," and provides a separate treatment for humorous techniques to be included in informative and persuasive presentations as well as a three-page section describing after-dinner speeches, travel talks, roasts, and theme talks. Ayres and Miller (1990) devote several pages to a discussion of humorous speaking, and provide advice on subject selection and organization, the use of tact, and delivery style. They also discussed the humorous speech. Capp et al. (1990) also include a three-page treatment of the entertaining speech, giving advice on the purpose, arrangement of ideas, and delivery. Specific suggestions are to (a) seek novel subjects and original ideas, (b) adopt plans to the audience and the occasion, (c) avoid heavy subject matter and complicated arrangement, (d) avoid a string of unrelated jokes, and (e) use a variety of types of humor.

CONCLUSION

As has been previously noted, the content analysis of 27 public speaking texts yielded 11 categories of information regarding the topic of humor in public speaking. The texts varied in length of treatment provided from a few lines (Nelson & Pearson, 1990; Powers, 1987; Samovar & Mills, 1989; Wilson et al., 1990) to much more elaborate treatments of chapter sections (Ayres & Miller, 1990; Beebe & Beebe, 1991; Capp et al., 1990; Devito, 1990; Gregory, 1990; Gronbeck et al., 1990; Hanna & Gibson, 1989; Hunt, 1987; Metcalfe, 1991; Mudd & Sillars, 1991; Osborn & Osborn, 1988; Ross, 1989; Tedford, 1991; Verdeber, 1988; Whitman & Foster, 1987; Wood, 1988) to entire chapters dealing with humor (Carlile & Daniel, 1991; Fletcher, 1990; Prentice & Payne, 1989; Sprague & Stuart, 1988). It should be noted that with the exception of Fletcher (1990), the chapters concerned with humor were primarily on the speech to entertain.

Most of the treatments of humor appeared to concern humor in the abstract, and this included the theories of humor, guidelines for the use of humor, rationale for the use of humor, and humor as a factor of attention. The greatest amount of attention to humor occurred in discussions of the speech to entertain in the context of humorous speaking. Discussions containing the sources of humor, such as understatement, overstatement, irony, and the like, were somewhat less abstract, and usually contained examples. Shorter segments were generally devoted to specific techniques that should be employed, how to deliver the humor, what to avoid, and whether or not to use self-deprecating humor. With the exception of Fletcher (1990), little attempt was made to develop specific techniques of humor in the novice speaker. Sprague and Stuart (1988), while providing specifics in the sources of humor, do not recommend that the speaker analyze his or her own humor in order to determine which of these categories would be most appropriate.

In analyzing the sum of the various treatments (see Table 2), it appears that the advice on the use of humor taken as a composite elicits much information. For the novice speaker, however, there seems to be an emphasis on principles rather than techniques. It would seem logical that a new speaker, after digesting all these texts, would have a sense of whether or not to incorporate humor in a particular speech, and could identify some types of humor recognized by the various texts, but still might not have an idea *how* to be creative, appropriate, relevant, and tasteful, or how to go about finding an example of contrast or understatement. Fletcher's (1990) playful treatment of adapting jokes to individual speakers' situations is an exception to this rule

What is necessary, I believe, is to supplement the useful standards for the use of humor supplied in most of the textbooks with a specific section or chapter on techniques. Would it be possible for students to generate their own puns and plays on words? Is it feasible for students to learn the art of humorous story-telling in the form of anecdotes? Can the student of public speaking learn specific methods of referring to the occasion? If one believes, as Sprague and Stuart (1988) have suggested, that everyone is funny, to one degree or another (p. 24b), then it may be possible to cultivate this humorous sense by opening the keys to the public speaker's creativity. The 27 texts present, with a variety of descriptions, insightful information regarding the topic of humor. The specifics, at least in this sample of texts, have yet to be generated for the novice student of public speaking.

Table 2
A Summary of the Treatment of Humor
in 27 Contemporary Public Speaking Texts

1. Theories of Humor: Hanna and Gibson.
2. Rationale for the Use of Humor: Ayres and Miller; Beebe and Beebe; Arlile and Daniel; De Vito; Fletcher; Gregory; Gronbeck et al.; Hanna and Gibson; Mudd and Sillars; Nelson and Pearson; Osborn and Osborn; Prentice and Payne; Ross; Samover and Mills; Verdeber.
3. Guidelines for the Use of Humor: Ayres and Miller; Capp et al.; Hanna and Gibson; Metcalfe; Prentice and Payne; Sprague and Stuart; Tedford; Whitman and Foster.
4. Sources of Humor: Ayres and Miller; Capp et al.; Carlile and Daniel; Hanna and Gibson; Mudd and Sillars; Prentice and Payne; Sprague and Stuart; Wilson et al.
5. Humor as a Factor of Attention; Ayres and Miller; Gronbeck et al.; Ross; Wilson et al.
6. Specific Techniques to Employ: Metcalfe; Nelson and Pearson; Osborn and Osborn; Powers; Wood.
7. Injunctions on the Use of Humor: Ayres and Miller; Capp et al.; DeVito; Gregory; Gronbeck et al.; Metcalfe; Mudd and Sillars; Prentice and Payne; Whiteman and Foster; Wood.

8. Who Should use Humor in a Speech: DeVito; Gronbeck et al.; Hanna and Gibson; Metcalfe; Sprague and Stuart; Verdeber; Wood.
9. On the Use of Self-Deprecating Humor: Fletcher; Gregory; Hanna and Gibson; Hunt; Mudd and Sillars; Ross; Whitman and Foster; Wood.
10. How to Deliver the Humor: Ayres and Miller; Fletcher; Gregory; Prentice and Payne; Whitman and Foster.
11. Humorous Speaking: Ayres and Miller; Capp et al.; Carlile and Daniel; Hunt; Metcalfe; Mudd and Sillars; Prentice and Payne.

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The Introduction of a Speech: Do Good Introductions Predict a Good Speech?

Valerie A. Whitecap

I remember being taught during the early years of my speech education that the "introduction" was the most important part of the speech and that in order to do well in the entire speech and to keep the attention of the audience. you had to "nail" the introduction. That involved, I remember, paying attention to mood and atmosphere and creating a "dramatic moment" worthy of remembering.

Having, hopefully, matured in my understanding, I began to wonder about this premise that the beginning is the essence and that, to quote the philosopher Mary Poppins, "Well begun is half done." If it is not begun well it is better to not have begun at all? If that premise is true, then it would be like saying that if the honeymoon doesn't have perfect mood and atmosphere and doesn't contain sufficient dramatic moments then the marriage is doomed.

If the introduction isn't as important as I have been teaching my students that it is, then how important, or unimportant, is it? Is a good "honeymoon" a predictor of forthcoming bliss? Does a successful speech follow a successful introduction? And finally, if a good introduction does not predict a successful speech, can anything be used as a predictor?

In thinking about these questions, beginning textbooks will be examined first to see what indeed is being taught about introductions. Then the results of the first speeches given by the freshmen and sophomores in a hybrid communication course will be studied to see if those whose introductions were well done also continued to do well during the rest of their speech. Finally, some other possible predictors to speech success will be discussed.

WHAT DO THE EXPERTS SAY?

Eleven textbooks, which can be divided into two categories, were examined: general communication texts (Adler, 1991; Berko, 1989; DeVito, 1991: Lane, 1991; and Verderber, 1990) and introduction to public speaking texts (Carlisle, 1991; DeVito, 1990; Fletcher, 1979; Gronbeck, 1990; Lucas, 1989: and Osborne, 1991). From these texts, a content analysis was conducted.

Table 1
Numerical Comparison

General Texts	Pages	Purposes	Ways
Adler	5	4	9
Berko	6	2	13
DeVito '91	3	2	7
Lane	2	3	5
Verderber	5	3	5
Speech Texts			
Carlisle	7	3	8
DeVito '90	8	3	15
Fletcher	27	6	11
Gronbeck	12	5	8
Lucas	12	4	7
Osborne	6	3	6

While all eleven texts covered the topic of giving an introduction, their treatments varied widely. As can be seen in

Table 1, they varied greatly in the number of pages devoted to the topic. the number of purposes (variously termed goals or criteria) of a good introduction, and in the number of ways and examples given.

Fletcher's was the only text which gave an entire chapter to introductions and devoted more to the topic than the space given by the next two highest texts combined (Gronbeck and Lucas). All of the speech texts spent more time on introductions than did any of the general texts except one. That exception was Berko (1989) who devoted six pages to the topic, the same number of pages given to the topic by the Osbornes (1991).

As to the purpose, (variously called goals or criteria) of the introduction, again the authors had divergent ideas. Table 1 shows that the texts vary from a low of two purposes (Berko, and DeVito '91) to a high of six (Fletcher). Table 2 is a list of the purposes as stated by the authors followed by the number of texts which listed this purpose.

Table 2
Purposes (Goals/Criteria)

Purpose	# of Texts
Get attention	11
Preview the speech	9
Gain credibility	6
Relate to audience	5
Set mood and tone	2
State importance of topic	1
Stimulate audience action	1
Reveal the topic	1
Lead into the body	1
Address speech occasion	1

The only purpose agreed upon by all of the authors was that the introduction must get the attention of the audience. And, to paraphrase Lucas, you have their attention when you stand up, its after you open your mouth that the trouble begin (1989).

All of the authors except two agreed that the introduction must preview the speech. Some stated that this preview should list the main points to be discussed, others did not get so specific.

Contrary to my previous assumptions, not all of the texts emphasized the importance of introductions to the extent that was expected. The authors either stressed how essential a strong introduction was or rather ignored the importance issue altogether. Additionally, they disagreed on so many items of purpose and content to a greater extent than could be attributed to semantic differences.

The writers also disagreed on the percentage of the speech that the introduction should represent. Of the general texts, only Adler and Verderber suggest a percentage. Adler said that the introduction and conclusion combined should only occupy 20% of the speech and Verderber said that the introduction alone could account for anywhere between 7% and 50% of the entire speech. Of the speech texts, Lucas suggests 10% to 20%, Osborne states that the introduction and conclusion combined should be less than 50% and Fletcher calls for 10% to 15%. Fletcher explains that for a four to five minute speech, the introduction would be around 113 words.

As to the issue of importance. three texts (Berko, DeVito '90, and Osborne) did not address the issue at all. Of the other eight texts), two (Lane and Verderber) argued against its relative importance while the other six found the introduction to be vital. The authors arguing against the importance will be discussed first followed by those who argued for vital importance.

Lane spends the least amount of space (2 pages) discussing the topic (refer to Table l) and. in a tie with

Verderber, contains the fewest number of ways and examples. Lane looks at the introduction as a part of a unified whole which is intended to draw a response which will remain constant throughout the speech. He does say that it requires careful preparation, which primarily consists of a gathering of knowledge about the audience, occasion and the attitudes that the audience members hold.

In his five pages, Verderber states that the introduction is a strategy of getting the audience to listen to the speech. "The introduction won't make your speech an instant success, but it can get an audience to look at you and listen to you. That is about as much as you have a right to ask of an audience during the first minute of your speech" (p. 309). That is as close as the author comes to talking about the importance of the introduction.

In arguing for the importance of the topic, Adler, and to a lesser extent, Lucas and Carlisle, quote famous orators. Adler includes quotes from, among others, Plato, "The beginning is the most important part of the work" (p. 348) and Euripides, "A bad beginning makes a bad ending" (p. 354). Lucas and Carlisle quote Clarence Darrow when he said. "Unless a speaker can interest his audience at once, his effort will be a failure" (Carlisle, p. 24 and Lucas, p. 169).

Adler argues for the importance of both the introduction and conclusion when he says they "are vitally important although they usually will occupy less than 20% of your speaking time. Listeners form their impressions of a speaker early, and they remember what they hear last, it is therefore, vital to make those few moments at the beginning and end of a speech work to your advantage" (p. 348).

Two of DeVito's texts. one for general communication (1991) and one for basic speech (1990) were examined. Again, contrary to expectations, the books differed in their approach to the topic. The basic speech text did not argue for the relative importance of the introduction, but the general communication text did. Where he stated, "The introduction to a speech, like the first day of a class or the first date, is especially important: It sets the tone for what is to follow" (1991, p. 333).

Carlisle finds the introduction to be vital, in stating,

> Just as you want to make a good first impression when meeting someone, you will want to make a good first impression in your speaking. In a speech your introduction makes that first memorable impression on your audience. Prepare it well because you never get a second chance to make a good first impression...Draw your audience members' attention to your topic at once and you will have a good beginning toward keeping them interested in your speech and topic (p. 24).

Gronbeck advises the student to take time to plan the introduction because "it is an investment, it will pay off handsomely, for strategically sound beginnings and endings prepare audiences and clinch your points" (p. 228).

Lucas and Fletcher make the strongest cases for the importance of the introduction. Fletcher, who also spent the most time on the topic, explains that he spent so much space on the lesson because "the introduction to a speech is so very critical ... it is your job, as you start your speech, to turn that daydreaming, diverse group of individuals into a concentrating, stimulated, involved, thinking, participating audience" (p. 229). At the same time, he cautions against over-rehearsing the introduction because doing so can sacrifice the fluency of the rest of the speech.

Lucas spends the most time the importance of the introduction and methods of preparing to deliver it which can help boost the confidence of the speaker. He suggests,

> First impressions are important. A poor beginning may so distract or alienate listeners that the speaker can never fully recover. Moreover, getting off on the right foot is vital to a speaker's self-confidence. What could be more encouraging that watching your listeners' faces begin to register interest, attention, and pleasure? The hardest part of any

> presentation is the beginning. If you get through the opening stages of your speech without blundering, the rest will go much more smoothly. A good introduction, you will find, is an excellent confidence booster...No matter how famous the speaker or how vital the topic, the speaker can quickly lose an audience if he or she doesn't use the introduction to get their attention and quicken the interest. Getting initial attention is usually easy to do-even before you utter a word. Step up and they will normally look. Wait until they do. Keeping the attention of audience once you start talking is more difficult...Practice it over and over until you can deliver it smoothly, with a minimum of notes and with strong eye contact. Get the speech off to a good start and it will give you a big boost of confidence" (pp. 168-170).

Berko, who doesn't deal with the importance of introductions directly, addresses them through the topic of attention. Contrary to Verderber's belief that the introduction is a strategy to get the audience to listen to the entire speech, Berko quotes the *Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology* from a report that says that the attention span is only about 20 seconds, so that the ability of the listener to focus attention is limited. He says that the listener cannot handle much beyond a fifteen minute time frame because, according to the *Chronicle of Higher Education,* which he quotes, "It's entirely possible that our capacity for sustained attention and deliberate thought is being altered by television viewing" (p. 107). While this might be an interesting topic for further discussion, Berko drops the subject and moves on to a discussion of the ways in which to introduce a speech. He provides examples of 13 ways by which to successfully introduce the speech. His list is second only to the list provided in DeVito's speech text ('90). Again. DeVito varies the approach in his two books, with his general text only including 8 ways or examples.

If attempting to pick a general text which most sufficiently covers the topic, Berko would be the choice for length and examples, and Adler would be the choice for the number of purposes. For a speech text, Fletcher spends the most time of the topic and provides the most purposes for the introduction, and DeVito '90 provides the most complete set of ways and examples.

COMPARISON OF INTRODUCTION AND SPEECH GRADE

This comparison of the introduction of the speech and the subsequent grade on the speech was done as a preliminary "think piece", so no attempts were made to determine statistical significance. The analysis asked "what's out there", and will hopefully lead to more controlled statistical analyses. In thinking about whether or not a good introduction can predict a good speech the grades for the first speech given by 54 college students enrolled in two sections of a general communication class were examined. There were 100 points on the speech evaluation. Twenty of those points were available for the introduction (See Table 3).

All of the students were evaluated by the same person using the same grading criteria. Of those 54 students, 25 received a 100% score on their introduction (a raw score of 20). Of that 25, only 8 received a grade on their speech of 90% and higher. Fifteen students received a score between 90% and 99% on their introduction. Of these fifteen, only one received a grade on their speech of 90% or higher. In all but three cases, the percentage on the introduction was higher than the percentage on the entire speech. In four cases, the percentage on the introduction and the entire speech was the same. Of the eleven students who scored 75% or below on their introduction, only one scored above 75% for the entire speech. A prediction could be made here. While a good introduction might not predict a good speech, most probably, a poor introduction will be followed by a poor speech. While Table 3 seems to show a directional trend, only 4 of the scores fall on the line which would show a direct relationship. It is again acknowledged that no attempt was made to do statistical correlations.

Table 3
Comparison of Introduction and Speech Grade

	Introduction Raw Score										
Speech %	20	19	18	17	16	15	14	13	12	11	10
100											
95-99	2										
90-94	6		1								
85-89	6		3	1	1						
80-84	3	4	3	1	1		1				
75-79	6	1	2								
70-74	2	1		1		3	1				
65-69											
60-64							1	1	1		
55-59											1

OTHER PREDICTORS

Given a lack of a definitive answer as to what would predict speech success if it was not doing a good introduction, I began looking elsewhere. It could be suggested that since practice makes perfect. students who reported having given more speeches or other oral presentations to an audience before entering college should get higher grades on their first speech in college than those students who did not give many speeches before entering college. Of the 54 students whose scores were studied, 46 filled out a survey listing the number of speeches they had given before entering college. This number was then compared with the score received on their first speech in communication class (See Table 4).

Table 4
Speech Score Compared with Prior Speech Experience

	Number of Previous Speeches							
Speech %	30+	25-29	20-24	15-19	10-14	5-9	1-4	0
100								
95-99					2			
90-94				2	1	1	1	1
85-89			1	1	4	2	2	
80-84	1				5	2	2	1
75-79						1	1	2
70-74	1			2	1	1	2	
65-69								
60-64				1	1		1	
55-59						1		
50-54								

The first reaction to this chart was distressing. Over 45% of these students, who matriculated primarily from high schools in Pennsylvania, New York and Ohio, gave less than ten speeches before entering college. Only three gave the equivalent of two or more oral presentations a year during their elementary and secondary schooling. While this chart does not show that previous speech experience brought about a higher speech score, as a sidelight I compared the grades on the second speech with the first speech grades and found that all but five of the 54 students rallied their grades on the second speech. While this may be more a factor of gaining knowledge about the expectations of the professor than of actual improvement, the professor's ego would rather attribute the improvement to teaching skill rather than to the ability of the students to "scope out" the teacher.

If previous experience cannot adequately predict college speech success, what about the student's major? Could it be hypothesized that students who choose majors which will require them to speak in public after graduation will score higher on their first college speech than students who choose majors which will probably not require them to much public speaking? Do those students who choose majors which are "verbally oriented" (VO) perform better on their initial college speeches than those who choose majors which are, primarily, "not verbally oriented" (NVO)? Of the 54 students, 44 listed their majors. The majors were then divided into three categories. those judged VO (including Telecommunication, English, Education, Business and Foreign Language), those judged NVO (including Psychobiology, Psychology, Biology, Physics, Environmental Science, and Computer Science) and those judged as mixed or not available because the major could be specifically designed to obtain a teaching degree (including Math, History, Art and Music) or because the student had not yet declared a major. The scores of those students were not included in this analysis. The majors of the remaining 35 students were compared with their speech scores (See Table 5).

Here again the search seems fruitless. If those students scoring above 90% are compared, 20% of the VO students and 30% of the NVO students scored at that level. Sixty eight percent of the VO students scored at the 80% level and above compared to 80% of the NVO students. In fact the highest two individual scores were earned by NVO students.

Table 5
Verbal Level of Majors Compared to Speech Score

Speech %	VO	NVO
100		
95-99		2
90-94	5	1
85-89	9	1
80-84	3	4
75-79	2	1
70-74	4	1
65-69		
60-64	2	1

FINAL THOUGHTS

If a successful introduction does not predict speech success, and if pre-college speaking experience does not predict speech success, and if the verbality of the chosen major does not predict speech success, where does that leave us. Are we reduced to looking toward other variables, like hair color and height? (Maybe the most successful speech makers are like the successful presidential candidates ... taller.) The academic side of me rejects those notions.

Further study needs to be done to ascertain what will predict or even bring speech success. We have found that textbook authors disagree on how to even begin successfully.

Perhaps the best thing to say about the end of a speech (or a paper) is to quote Lord Mancroft, "A speech is like a love affair. Any fool can start it, but to end it requires considerable skill" (Adler, p. 383).

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The Use of Role Models in Teaching Public Speaking

Lauren A. Vicker

INTRODUCTION

The use of role models in teaching is a topic which has been examined extensively in education, psychology and sociology. For speech communication instructors, our basic understanding of how we learn from others must be extrapolated from other disciplines. This educational strategy is especially utilized in public speaking instruction, where students are routinely required to analyze the speeches of others, with the expectation that these exercises will help them in their own speech-making.

As a relatively new discipline in the social sciences, speech communication is still in a process of theory-building on its own. The discipline's base is borrowed from many fields in social science, business and the humanities. While we have examined many human communication phenomena in our own research studies, we still have great gaps. Gustav Friedrich has maintained that we need more original research and seminal work defining the basic characteristics of our discipline (1985). In an earlier work, Friedrich had specified the use of role models in the teaching of public speaking as an important question for research (1983).

This author's particular interest in the topic, however, had been brewing for some time before this. As a member of a Speech Communication Department which hosts a major forensics tournament each year, it appeared that our undergraduates who volunteered to serve as time-keepers during the tournament did a better job on their classroom speeches than those who did not attend the competition. While it may be argued that the better students might volunteer for such an assignment, and thus give better speeches anyway, this did not appear to hold true in the majority of cases.

Thus, this study was an outgrowth of personal experience and its resulting curiosity, and is also a response to a call for such research by scholars in the field.

PURPOSE

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between the use of role models and the teaching of public speaking. Most public speaking teachers offer students examples of public speaking for review and analysis. These samples may take the forms of videotapes of famous speakers, such as John F. Kennedy and Martin Luther King, or requiring students to attend speeches on their campuses or in their communities, or it may simply be a critical review of fellow students' speeches within the speech class. But whatever the form, the underlying assumption is that such opportunities will ultimately help the student to prepare and present a better speech than he or she might have done without the experience of observing others.

The research question for this study is as follows:

> Does the observation of role models in public speaking allow a student to prepare and present a better speech than he might have been able to give without the role models?

Since public speaking instructors have assumed this to be the case, we will advance the following hypothesis:

> Students who observe role models in public speaking will present a better speech than students who have not observed the role models.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

It is surprising that no studies have been done on the use of role models in teaching public speaking. Colleagues in the discipline seemed sure that someone must have looked at this topic; and yet, several separate searches of the literature failed to locate even one study which examined this question.

Friedrich (1983) has done a credible job relating the work of A. Bandura and others who pioneered our understanding of the use of role models in a variety of educational settings, to the arena of public speaking. His review includes studies which examined the use of role models in treating speech anxiety. Friedrich goes on to lament the lack of research base which leaves us unable to answer questions about the effectiveness of using role models as a skill development strategy in public speaking classes.

The single study on the use of model speeches in the basic speech course (Matlon, 1968) is a survey drawn from doctoral dissertation research done 25 years ago. Matlon found that 62% of the responding speech teachers did use models for instruction in the basic course. Respondents indicated that they used models primarily "to illustrate principles of public speaking, to demonstrate speaking of noteworthy individuals, to add to one's knowledge of the humanities, and because the models appeared in the textbook" (p. 51). Matlon's study, however, was primarily a data gathering mechanism, and not an analysis of the effectiveness of role models as an instructional strategy.

Since Bandura's seminal work, research into the use of role models in other social science disciplines has proceeded at a consistent pace. Many of the studies have centered around life role models of teachers and counselors for elementary and high school students. Fewer studies have involved college students. These include studies of college professors as role models and motivators for their students (Stake and Noonan, 1985; Erkut and Mokros, 1984). A single study was found related to communication performance. Barth and Gambrill (1984) studied social work students who had the opportunity to observe role models conduct interviews with clients, and then were given feedback on their own interviewing skills. Results of the study suggested this was a worthwhile experience and more opportunities of a similar nature needed to be made available to students.

While role models have not been systematically observed in the speech communication classroom, the literature suggests that their use might be beneficial for students. Our current practice of using role models without empirical evidence of their effectiveness, however, should be questioned.

PROCEDURES

The subjects in this study were students in two introductory speech communication classes at a small liberal arts college located in New York. The classes were offered consecutively, during the day, and seemed to draw a relatively homogeneous group of students (i.e., the students were of similar age, there were a few minorities in each class, and there were no non-traditional students). Instructor effect was controlled by having the same instructor for both classes. Course content was carefully planned and presented to ensure that both groups received essentially the same instruction.

This speech communication course was a hybrid design, with public speaking as its final component. For the experimental effect, a single day in the semester was chosen. The experimental group viewed a videotape of students making informative speeches. The instructor was not present and no one gave additional instruction or comments. The control group class did not meet that day, but was given the day for "speech research". They were told that the instructor would be available for any questions during class time, but no students took advantage of this opportunity.

The videotape that was observed by the experimental group was a tape of seven informative speeches given by upper division public speaking students. The group was from an evening class held during the previous semester, and most of the students were part-time and had little contact with the day students in the research groups. Several other instructors were asked to view the tape before it was shown to the experimental group, and they concurred that the public speaking ability of the students represented a wide range.

The following week, the students in the control and experimental groups gave their own classroom speeches. These speeches were videotaped and retained for evaluation. After all the speeches had been completed, a total of 12 speeches were videotaped and used from each class.

The evaluations of the speeches were done by a group of 12 senior-level speech students at a different small liberal arts college in New York. The students watched the tapes as a group and rated each speech on a scale from 1 to 10, with 10 representing the best speech overall and one representing the weakest.

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The data obtained from student raters were converted to a mean for each of the 12 speakers in each group. These means were analyzed using a two-sample t-test. The results of this analysis are shown in Table 1.

It is interesting to note that the differences between the two groups are not in the direction hypothesized: the control group actually did somewhat better on their speeches than the experimental group. The differences between the groups are significant at the .05 level, but not at the .01 level. Thus, we can conclude that the hypothesis was not supported.

Table 1
Analysis of Means for the Effect of Role Models

	N	Mean	St. Dev.	SE Mean
Control Group	12	6.75	1.79	0.52
Experimental Group	12	5.06	1.31	0.38

T = 2.64
P = 0.015

DISCUSSION

The findings of this study did not support the hypothesis that watching role models improved a student's ability to prepare and present a classroom speech. This directly contradicts conventional thought and common practice of public speaking instructors, who routinely include the analysis of speeches as part of the instructional process. There are several possible explanations for the findings of this study.

One possibility is that there were some extraneous factors which influenced the results. Even though course content and instructor effect were carefully controlled, the classroom dynamics can often produce differences in course content. The initiative of individual students to seek out further information and other public speaking experiences, or the ability to capitalize on past experience (such as a high school course or a club office which requires much public speaking experience) may also produce students who give more effective speeches. Students in the control group may have indeed used the "Speech Research Day" to do research for their speeches, and thus improve performance. Thus, we can never perfectly control the factors involved.

A second explanation for the findings of this study is that the group doing the ratings of the speeches were influenced by the speech content, the group setting for the evaluation, or the forced compliance involved in this task. While their instructor reported that they were willing to participate, many factors may have affected the reliability and validity of their ratings. In examining the raw scores, it is interesting to note that the students were quite consistent in their ratings: the range used on the 10-point scale was generally not more than four points.

A final but significant explanation for the findings is that the instructor's role in public speaking instruction may have been underestimated. It may indeed be true that watching speeches helps a student to learn, but only when this viewing is accompanied by critical class analysis led by the instructor. Without the "expert" teacher available to comment and point out significant factors which affect performance, the novice student may be unable on his own to truly learn and internalize lessons from the role model. Thus, the comments of the instructor may be a crucial factor in helping a student sort through preparation and performance options available in public speaking.

Clearly, this study was a pilot study, an attempt to begin an investigation into an area speech teachers take for granted, but have never truly tested. The logistics involved in conducting such a study make it difficult and time-consuming, but the results of this study should encourage others to work to better define the answers to questions so basic to our teaching. Such definition will benefit our students and enhance the status of the discipline as we attempt to build a theoretical base of our own.

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